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U. S. NAVAL FORCES IN NORTHERN RUSSIA (ARCHANGEL AND MURMANSK), 1918-1919

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Administrative Reference Service Reports

1. Incentives for Civilian Employees of the Navy Department: A Review of the Experience of the First World War, by Dr. Henry P. Beers. (Special Report, not for general distribution), May 1943.

2. U. S. Naval Detachment in Turkish Waters, 1919-1924, by Dr. Henry P. Beers, June 1943.

3. U. S. Naval Port Officers in the Bordeaux Region, 1917-1919, by Dr. Henry P. Beers, September 1943.

 3A. U. S. Naval Port Regulations, Port of Bordeaux, France (Reproduction of 30 page pamphlet issued 19 March 1919) July 1943.

4. The American Naval Mission in the Adriatic, 1918-1921. by Dr. A. C. Davidonis, September 1943.

5. U. S. Naval Forces in Northern Russia (Archangel and Murmansk), 1918-1919, by Dr. Henry P. Beers, November 1943.

Note:

Attention is called to Report No. 3A, which reproduces a 30 page pamphlet, "U. S. Naval Port Regulations, Port of Bordeaux, France", published originally at Bordeaux by the naval port officer. It gives a comprehensive idea of the details of the routine functions of a port officer and might serve as a useful model for similar issues.

U. S. NAVAL FORCES IN NORTHERN RUSSIA (ARCHANGEL AND MURMANSK)

The outbreak of war between Russia and Germany in August 1914 had important effects upon North Russia. The closing of the Baltic ports of Russia and of the exit from the Black Sea through Turkey's joining the Central Powers left her only the remote ports on the Arctic Ocean through which to secure military supplies and equipment from her Allies in western Europe, aside from the still more remote port of Vladivostok in Siberia. It became necessary therefore for Russia to develop the northern region to the greatest extent possible and with the greatest possible speed.

The only port of any size in Northern Russia in 1914 was Archangel, an imposing and well-built city located on elevated ground on the eastern bank of the North Dvina River where it branches into a number of streams, thirty-three miles from the White Sea. Founded in 1553, when an English trading factory was built there, Archangel had been Russia's only outlet to the sea for many years, but after the building of Petrograd by Peter the Great in 1702 it declined in importance although it continued to be visited by ships from England and the Netherlands. Far from peace time shipping routes, Archangel was 720 miles distant from Moscow and 760 miles from Petrograd. It was connected by river, canal, and rail with the south. In ordinary times it exported lumber, tar, flax, linseeds, and skins. To increase the capacity of the railroad, the terminus of which was at Bakaritza on the west bank of the North Dvina opposite Archangel, it was converted from a single to a double track line in 1916. A temporary railroad was built by the Russians to the port of Economia constructed by the

British sixteen miles down the river from Archangel in order to provide a place with a longer open season; this could be reached by ice breakers until the middle of January. The population of Archangel which in 1915 numbered 40,000, increased several fold and the imports many fold during the early years of the war.

Since Archangel was closed to shipping from November to May because of ice, which began forming in October at the headwaters of the North Dvina and progressed downstream to the White Sea, the Russians undertook the construction of a new port on the Murman coast 430 miles from Archangel. Although the Murman coast was farther north on the Barents Sea, a part of the Arctic Ocean, it was free of ice the year round because of the influence of the Gulf Stream, which passes north of Norway. Under imperial authority and at a cost of $60,000,000, a railroad was built during 1915-1917 by an army of laborers, foremen, and inspectors supervised by Russian engineers from Petrozavodsk, to which a line extended from Petrograd, to the Murman coast. Prior to its completion caravans of reindeer sleighs transported light articles and munitions by road to the south. Its northern terminus was a town of log huts built on a plain encircled by hills at a point on the eastern shore of the Kola Inlet twenty-five miles from the sea, which was at first known as Romanovsk and after the revolution of 1917 as Murmansk. The new port, a flask shaped bay, afforded sheltered anchorage for large vessels, and the narrowness of the Kola Inlet permitted stretching a boom across it to control the passage and provide protection against enemy raids. Here a shifting population of some 15,000 of Russians, Chinese and war prisoners supplied workmen for the railroad and stevedores for unloading ships. At Alexandrovsk, a port

founded in 1899 at the mouth of the Kola Inlet but considered unsuitable for development, because of high cliffs, were cable connections with England and Archangel. Through a branch cable running to Alexandrovsk, Murmansk had communication with those places. A telegraph line ran the length of the Murman coast from the Norwegian frontier via Alexandrovsk and Kola to Archangel.

Naval protection soon had to be provided for the Murman Coast, for the port of Murmansk was hardly begun before German submarines began to torpedo ships and lay mines off the coast. As the Russian Navy could furnish only an inadequate patrol, the British Navy undertook operations in this region in 1915 with a patrd squadron under Rear Admiral Thomas W. Kemp. Despite improved defenses in 1916, German submarines accounted for forty vessels in that year. The patrolling and trawling detachments were further strengthened in 1917, but in the spring of that year the Russian Government requested the United States to dispatch at the earliest date possible a reinforcement of four patrol vessels and four destroyers. Captain Newton A. McCully, who was then serving as naval attache at Petrograd, journeyed by rail to Archangel at the end of June 1917, investigated conditions there and at Murmansk, to which he traveled in a Russian trawler, and submitted a report in the following month. At this time the Russian commandant of the Archangel naval district was also commander-in-chief of the White Sea Fleet and had charge of communications and coastal batteries. Afloat the Russians divided control with the British White Sea Fleet, the Russians patrolling and trawling in the White Sea and its entrance as far as Sviati Noos, while the British operated west of that point. Admiral Kemp had certain rights of inspection and supervision in order

to expedite ship repairs at Archangel. He controlled shipping proceeding to that port where upon its arrival responsibility was transferred to the British Naval Transport Officer. Russian naval bases at Yukanskoe and Murmansk cooperated with the British. Admiral Kemp was usually stationed on the battleship Glory at Murmansk. Captain McCully stated that sending destroyers was of vital importance, if it was desired to encourage Russia to maintain opposition to the enemy. It was impossible at the time, however, for the U. S. Navy to meet other, apparently more urgent demands, and no destroyers were sent to Northern Russia. The British light cruiser Iphigenia, which it had been planned to allow to be frozen in at Archangel where Admiral Kemp and the naval transport office would remain, was withdrawn with all naval personnel in December 1917, following the Bolshevik revolution, to Murmansk where British forces continued in order to be in a position to influence conditions and to protect Allied refugees who were crowding into that port via the Murman railroad.

Largely cut off from outside sources of military supplies during the winter of 1914-1915 because of the lack of an ice free port on the Arctic, the Russians suffered military defeat at the hands of the Germans in 1915-1916, and were not able thereafter to make effective resistance. The Czar was deposed in a revolution in March 1917, and a provisional government was established. Not long after seizing power in November 1917, the Bolsheviks effected an armistice and began negotiations for a separate peace with the Central Powers. Excessive demands on the part of Germany prevented this from being immediately accomplished, resulting in February 1918 in the termination of the armistice by the Germans and their advance into Russia. By May they occupied both the rich granary of the Ukraine and Finland. The German

occupation of Finland placed her in a position to advance into North Russia; occupy Archangel and Murmansk; seize the huge quantities of military stores transported to those places from the United States, Great Britain, and France which in the 1917 season amounted to over two million tons; establish submarine bases from which they could raid Allied shipping routes; utilize as a base for the seizure of Spitzbergen; seize the Russian naval vessels in the White Sea; and entrench themselves so as to cut off Allied trade with North Russia after the war. These were apprehensions which it was only good military sense to contemplate. The defeat of Russia was a staggering blow to the Allies, for it meant the end of the German eastern front and the resultant transfer to the western front in France of large bodies of German troops. The occupation of Russia by Germany placed it in a position to benefit from the great resources of raw materials and the vast supply of man power of the conquered nation. To prevent Germany from reaping as far as possible the advantages of her victory over Russia, the Allies decided to intervene in Northern Russia in an affort to rebuild a Russian army about an Allied force as a nucleus and recreate an eastern front.

Early in 1918 the British sent the cruiser Cochrane to reinforce Admiral Kemp and requested naval assistance from France and the United States. On vessels sent to evacuate refugees some Royal Engineers were carried to Murmansk in order to perform demolitions in the event of a withdrawal. The Cochrane arrived on March 7 and the French cruiser Admiral Aube on the 19th.

The Allied intervention at Murmansk in the spring of 1918 was effected upon the invitation of the local Soviet, which had been

formed following the Bolshevik revolution, and with the approval of the Central Soviet at Moscow, which was desirous of obtaining supplies and military equipment from the Allies with which to suppress the factions wanting to continue the fight against the Central Powers. The Soviet government, it might be added, had no means at the time of opposing the Allies. Early in March representatives of Great Britain and France agreed with the Murmansk Soviet that supreme authority in the region was to remain with the Soviet, that the Soviet should have representation on the military council which was to direct military matters, that the Allied representatives would not interfere with the internal affairs of the region, and that the Allies would supply food and war materials. Shortly afterwards, on March 9, 200 British marines from the Glory and 100 French marines from the Admiral Aube were landed at Murmansk. This small beginning was soon enlarged upon. Rear Admiral Kemp in command at Murmansk had instructions to protect and further Allied interests but not to commit himself to land military operations away from the port; he might utilize the crews of the ships to stiffen local resistance. [illegible]ack upon Pechenga was repulsed in May by a force of British and Russians.

American participation in the Allied intervention in Northern Russia resulted from representations of the British government and American representatives in Russia. It was also favored by the Russian officials at Murmansk who distrusted the British and feared that once they were established in the region they would never depart. Admiral William S. Sims, Force Commander, U. S. Naval Forces Operating in European Waters, whose headquarters were at London, forwarded with his indorsement on March 3, 1918 a request from the British

Admiralty for the dispatch of an American warship to Northern Russia to give material assistance and to impress the Russians. The Chief of Naval Operations, Admiral William S. Benson, replied that after conferring with the Department of State it had been decided not to send a a cruiser to Murmansk for the present. A note on the same subject was received by the Department of State from the British Embassy on March 5. During March and April the Murmansk officials were in touch with Lieut. Hugh S. Martin, U.S.A., an assistant military attache of the American Embassy in Russia, who had been sent to Murmansk by Brig. Gen. William V. Judson, chief of the American Military Mission in Russia, and the Ambassador in Russia, David R. Francis. Towards the end of April, Lieutenant Martin went to Vologda, to which Ambassador Francis had retired a month before, with a plan for American intervention. Mr. Francis had communicated his approval of intervention in March and continued to espouse it although nothing came of the plan presented to him by Martin.

Early in April, not long after the Germans began their great drive on the western front, following the transfer of troops from Russia, Admiral Benson again communicated with Admiral Sims concerning the need for an American naval vessel in Northern Russia and was assured that the British Admiralty still regarded it as necessary. The old cruiser Olympia, the former flagship of Admiral George Dewey, which had been engaged in convoy escort duty on the Atlantic under the command of Capt. Bion Boyd Bierer, after a lengthy retirement preceding the war, was selected for the Northern Russia assignment. Sailing from Charleston Navy Yard, where it had been given some overhauling to fit it for the rigorous duty ahead, on April 28, it

reached Scapa Flow on May 13, and after bunkering continued a week later on the voyage to Murmansk which was reached on May 24. Here it found an assortment of British, French, and Russian naval vessels all under the command of British Rear Admiral Thomas W. Kemp. Captain Bierer at once called upon Admiral Kemp on the Glory, the captain of the Amiral Aube, and the Murmansk Soviet and established official relations with them. With all the force under his command Captain Bierer was subject to orders from Admiral Kemp. According to arrangements made by Admiral Sims with the British Admiralty, the Olympia and the other American warships which subsequently arrived in Northern Russia were supplied by the British Navy, whose means were more ample and convenient for this purpose. Certain supplies, however, were received from the United States.

Among a number of passengers carried by the Olympia was Brig. Gen. Frederick C. Poole of the British Army, who had been selected by the Allied Supreme War Council as commander-in-chief of the Allied forces in Northern Russia. This appointment not only made him the superior of Rear Admiral Kemp but also gave him command of operations in both the Murmansk and the Archangel regions. Since operations in Northern Russia were bound to be amphibious in character and since the British were in the best position to handle such operations, it was good planning from a military viewpoint to put a British officer in command, but politically it would have been better to have designated an American officer, for of all the Allied nations the Americans were best liked and most trusted by the Russians.

The Allied force at Murmansk was augmented at the time of General Poole's accession to the command by the arrival of British marines

and infantry. Other elements in the force included French and Serb soldiers who had reached Murmansk on their way from Russia to France, Red Finns, Russians and Poles enlisted in a Slavo-British legion by the British, and Bolshevik troops who were cooperating with the Allies at this time. General Poole had expected to find a strong body of Czechs at Murmansk as arrangements had been made with the Soviet government for their transportation there from Omsk, Siberia where they had collected after being liberated as prisoners of war following the Treaty of Brest-Litvosk, but a Bolshevik army had intercepted them. When news reached Murmansk at the end of the first week in June of the approach of Finnish troops to cut the Murman railroad, the Murmansk Regional Soviet authorized an Allied advance south of Kandalaksha, 200 miles to the south and the farthest point reached by foreign troops up to that period. To take the place of the troops that were dispatched to the south, 8 officers and 100 seamen were landed at Murmansk from the Olympia on June 9. Several writers state in their accounts that this force consisted of marines, but there were no marines serving on tl Olympia while it was stationed in Northern Russia. These men were quartered in large, well-lighted barracks in the southern part of the town with the British marines that had been landed recently and performed guard duty, and the officers lived in a sleeping car. The passage of winter had brought to life swarms of mosquitoes which greatly troubled all living flesh in the region. General Charles C. M. Maynard arrived on June 23 with a thousand British troops. He found General Poole on board the Glory discussing the condition of the White Sea with Admiral Kemp, who in the following month paid a visit to Archangel. General Maynard took charge of the

Murmansk area where a force was necessary to keep open communications with England and France, and attempted to recruit Russians for service against the Germans; he was subordinate to General Poole.

Attached to the Olympia were workmen of various crafts who were kept busy while the ship was at Murmansk working upon ships in that port. After assisting in overhauling and repairing the Russian destroyer Kapitan Yourasovski, a detail of fifty men from the Olympia was assigned to duty on board it. In succeeding weeks working parties were engaged on the merchant ships Porte and Stephen and the Glory. Because of the shortage of stevedores, assistance was also given in discharging and loading vessels.

Following the establishment of peace with Germany in the treaty of Brest-Litvosk, the Bolshevik government under German pressure sought to effect the removal of the Allies from Murmansk. It presented notes of protest to the Allied representatives in Russia against the continuance of Allied warships in Russian harbors and sent a demand which was received in Murmansk on June 16 for the departure of these vessels. In view of this situation the British troops which were still on board ship were landed on June 26 under orders of General Poole. The Murmansk Regional Soviet, after consulting with the Allied representatives, decided to defy the order from Moscow. This decision was affirmed by a mass meeting at which the Allied officers, including Captain Bierer, made addresses in which they appealed to the local population to continue the fight against the Germans. Along with General Poole and Capitaine Petit of the Amiral Aube, Captain Bierer signed an agreement with the Murmansk Regional Council on July 6 in which it was provided that the

region would be defended against the Germans and that the Allies would furnish military supplies and equipment, foodstuffs, manufactured goods, and funds which were to be charged against the government debt of Russia, and that the internal government of the region was to be exercised by the Murmansk Regional Council. This accord, which opened the region to Allied penetration, was provisionally approved by Admiral Sims in a cable to Captain Bierer of August 3 and by the Department of State in October. The Moscow government protested against the Allied occupation as an invasion of Soviet territory and declared that it would be resisted. While on a trip on the Murman railroad to the south, General Maynard encountered Red Guards, a force of railroad defense troops raised by the Soviet Government, on the way to drive the Allies out of Murmansk; he was successful in disarming them and the local population along the railroad and so established control of it. In July British forces assisted by the newly arrived light cruiser Attentive and the carrier Nairana occupied Kem and Soroka, towns on the Murman railroad which were on the shore of the White Sea. Thus was inaugurated a state of undeclared war with the Bolsheviks which was to endure until late in the succeeding year. In this state of affairs it became the design of the Allies to effect a junction with White Russian forces under Admiral Kolchak fighting their way westward along the Siberian railroad and then to overthrow the Bolsheviks by force of arms. A part of the same general scheme was another Allied expedition which was landed at Vladivostok on the Pacific Coast of Siberia and assistance rendered the forces of General Denikin and General Wrangel in South Russia. Thus from an anti-German the expedition was transformed into an anti-Bolshevik enterprise.

As the continued presence of Bolshevik forces at Archangel constituted a threat to the Allied occupation of Murmansk, an invasion of the former region was planned by the Allied officers, who no doubt regarded it as a more strategic base for operations. Sir Eric Geddes, First Sea Lord, who came on a visit with the British reinforcements, advised the War Cabinet to order an early landing. But General Poole decided to await the arrival of more Allied forces. The removal of Ambassador Francis and the other Allied ambassadors from Vologda, where they would have been cut off by the seizure of Archangel, their arrival at Kandalaksha on July 30, after a train journey to Archangel and a voyage across the White Sea, which movements were reported to General Poole by Ambassador Francis, who was the dean of the diplomatic corps, enabled the expedition to embark on the same date. It comprised the Attentive, the Nairana, the Amiral Aube and was preceded by six armed trawlers. The Olympia remained at Murmansk, but Captain Bicker accompanied the force on board the H.M.S. Salvator with General Poole and his staff. More ships left on the 31st carrying British and French troops and on the S.S. Stephen were three officers and fifty-one men from the Olympia. The force on the warships and the transports included only about 1500 troops, but the offensive power of the naval vessels added greatly to the total strength. After bombs dropped by aircraft from the Nairana and shells fired by the Attentive subdued the Russian battery on Modyugski Island 30 miles north of Archangel, both that place and Economia were occupied on August 2, and on the following day the Bolsheviks, who during the winter had succeeded in removing most of the military stores that had accumulated at Archangel were driven out of Bakaritza. After the

landing at Archangel, forces were sent south on the railroad, and on the Dvina River combined military and naval operations were undertaken. Special efforts had been made by Moscow itself to effect the shipment to interior points of the valuable stores, most of which were consequently lost to the Allies, and some of which apparently reached German hands to be used for fighting the Allied troops. The debt for the stores was repudiated by the Bolsheviks who did not consider themselves responsible for obligations incurred by the imperial government of Russia. After the loss of Archangel, the Bolsheviks anticipated a descent upon Moscow and began overtures to the Germans for help. The Bolsheviks thereafter were naturally hostile towards the Allies who by this time had also landed in Siberia.

The part played by the U.S. Navy in the taking of Archangel was of no particular moment, for only the small landing force commanded by Lieut. Henry F. Floyd was involved. Of this force half were soon sent up the Dvina River with Allied troops in an attempt to push the Bolsheviks farther south; they encamped at a point near the junction of that river with the Vaga. A small detachment of an officer and twelve men was employed in patrolling the Archangel-Vologda railroad between Isakogorka and Tundra. The rest of the force assisted in training a Russian Allied Naval Brigade which was organized at Archangel. A party of twenty-two bandsmen arrived shortly from the Olympia and was probably used to soothe the local population and entertain the occupying forces. The Russian destroyer Kapitan Yourasovski, which was largely manned by American bluejackets, was also at Archangel in August. Captain Bierer inspected Archangel and Bakaritza and their vicinities, and conferred with Admiral Kemp

and the other British naval officers concerning the use to be made of the Russian ice breakers, trawlers, patrol vessels, and steamers, which were found at Archangel, and the formation of the Russian Allied Naval Brigade. With Admiral Kemp on the Salvator he departed for Murmansk on August 19. Ambassador Francis, who in the meantime had traveled to Murmansk only to reach there after the departure of the expedition, returned to Kandalaksha and then to Archangel where he arrived with the diplomatic corps on August 9 and established the embassy. The dispatch of American soldiers to Northern Russia was urged by the British and by Ambassador Francis. The British pleaded inability to furnish adequate forces because of the demands of the situation in France and the lack of troops in England. Francis reported that the forces in Northern Russia were inadequate and that the arrival of Americans would enhearten the Russians. On a visit to Paris he urged a force of 100,000 men. Having taken the first step, the United States Government now took the next step and became fully involved in the war with the Bolsheviks. General Pershing, the Commander of the American Expeditionary Force, was opposed to the intervention in Northern Russia because it meant diverting troops from the front in France, but President Wilson was persuaded to consent and ordered the sending of troops.

The American consul at Archangel, Felix Cole, realized what intervention would lead to and addressed a long communication to Francis, which was forwarded to the Department of State, setting forth potent reasons against it. He believed that our involvement would result in increasing demands for ships, men, and money, and materials; that to hold the region and the railroads and rivers leading to the south would require widespread operations and extensive forces; that the ground had

not been properly laid and that active support would not be afforded by the Russians; that it would be necessary to feed the entire population; that the Bolsheviks would oppose it; that it would not be effective in a military way against Germany; that it would damage our relations with the Russian people; and that like other invasions of foreigners into Russia it would be swallowed up. He did, however, favor the dispatch of strong naval forces to Archangel, Murmansk, and the White Sea. That there was wisdom in his words subsequent events proved, but they were words from afar.

A reinforcement of American troops consisting largely of the 339th Infantry totaling 4600 men reached Archangel on the troop ships Somali, Tydeus, Nagoya from England on September 4, 1918. At the time of their arrival, these men were not in good shape for battle, for they had been attacked by an epidemic of influenza during the voyage. Their commanding officer, Col. George E. Stewart, had directions to report to General Poole and operate under his orders. Part of these troops were sent to the south along the Dvina and the railroad while others were stationed in Archangel and vicinity. Wherever they went and wherever other Allied troops served, they went usually under British officers, for the British adopted the practice of giving temporary promotions to their officers so they would out-rank the other Allied officers. Some additional American Troops arrived at the end of September with other forces under General William E. Ironside. The American forces were by far the most numerous in the Archangel region, but they had to fight under a British general. Colonel Stewart was given quarters in a steam heated building, modern and roomy, where he enjoyed considerable comfort and no authority, and where he remained for the winter.

Although they conferred with the British, the American officers were not on a confidential basis with them.

A naval passenger on one of the troop transports, Lieut. Sergius M. Riis, U.S.N.R.F., became attached to the American Embassy at Archangel as acting naval attache. Since he had had previous experience in the Arctic and could speak Russian, Esthonian, and Finnish, he was a valuable addition not only to the embassy but to the whole circle of American officers in Northern Russia all of whomutilized his services on occasion.

Although the United States Government dispatched naval and military forces to Northern Russia, it did not commit itself to full-fledged military intervention in Russia. The policy of the government was announced in a public statement issued on August 3, the day after the occupation of Archangel. In this the considered opinion was expressed that military intervention in Russia would not be in the interest of her people and would be more likely to result in using them than in serving them, even if it were successful in creating an attack upon Germany from the east. Military action was admissible only to help the Czecho-Slovaks against the armed Austrian and German prisoners who were attacking them and to steady efforts at self-government or self-defense by the Russians. "Whether from Vladivostok or from Murmansk and Archangel, the only present object for which American troops will be employed will be to guard military stores which may subsequently be needed by Russian forces and to render such aid as may be acceptable to the Russians in the organization of their own self-defense." No interference with the political sovereignty of Russia or intervention in her internal affairs was contemplated.

Ambassador Francis was informed in a telegram of September 26 that as there was no hope of effective help from the Russians, the United States would cooperate militarily only to guard the ports themselves and the neighboring country. General relief could not be undertaken nor would more American troops be sent to Northern Russia. The substance of these documents was communicated by Admiral Sims to Captain Bierer, who acquainted his forces with their import.

After the arrival of military reinforcements at Archangel, most of the landing force and the bandsmen were returned in the middle of September from that place to the Olympia at Murmansk. No American soldiers were landed at Murmansk until April 1919 when two companies of transportation troops arrived to run the Murman railroad. But the U.S. Army was represented at Murmansk by two intelligence officers, Lieut. H. S. Martin and Lieut. M. B. Rogers. The former acted as American consul prior to the arrival of Maurice C. Pierce to fill that position in January 1919.

At the time of the Allied occupation of Archangel, its government passed into the hands of anti-Bolshevik officials headed by the veteran socialist, Nikolai Vasilyevich Chaikovsky, who had spent many years of his life in England and the United States as an exile. This government was put in office with the help of Allied agents and became subservient to the Allied commander, General Poole, being guided by him and the Allied ambassadors. A proclamation was issued announcing the establishment of the Supreme Administration of the Northern Region, which was a provisional body intended to function only until the formation of a central democratic government in Russia. This government was replaced early in October by the Provisional Government of

the North, which allowed representation to middle class groups. Mr. Francis made repeated complaints to Washington about the high-handed methods employed by General Poole in the conduct of affairs. The general was called to England in October to report on matters in Northern Russia and did not return, being replaced by General William E. Ironside, who proved to be a more conciliatory officer. The maintenance of independent commands at Archangel and Murmansk was difficult so at this time General Ironside was given command only at Archangel, and General Maynard was accorded complete charge at Murmansk. In the following month Rear Admiral John F. E. Green became senior British naval officer in Northern Russia, succeeding Rear Admiral Kemp who returned to England. Upon Chaikovsky's departure in January 1919 to engage in anti-Bolshevik agitation at the Paris peace conference, he was succeeded by Major General Eugene Miller, an officer of the old Russian army, who filled the posts of minister of foreign affairs and commander-in-chief as well as that of governor general. Murmansk came under the Archangel government, and after the beginning of November 1918 it was governed by a deputy governor named Yermoloff; he worked closely with General Maynard who had been in practical charge of civil affairs for sometime previous, owing to the virtual retirement of the Murmansk Council.

After the landing of American soldiers at Archangel, the Navy Department took up with the Department of State the matter of assigning a rear admiral to duty in Northern Russia. The latter department communicated to Ambassador Francis the plan to send Rear Admiral Newton A. McCully, who had previously served under him as naval attache at Petrograd, and the reply was received that this officer would be very acceptable. Rear Admiral McCully was selected because of his

familiarity with Russia and the Russian language acquired during a tour of duty in the Far East as an observer with Russian military and naval forces during the Russo-Japanese War and during his tenure of the position of naval attache in Russia from 1914 to 1917. Before his departure from Russia in 1917 he had made a brief visit to Northern Russia, as already mentioned, and submitted a report concerning the dispatch of American naval forces to that region. In the spring of 1917 he served for a short time with the American Mission to Russia and in the fall of that year, after his return to the United States, with a Russian Mission to the United States. When orders were sent him on September 26, 1918 to assume the post in Northern Russia, he was serving at Rochefort, France in charge of a U.S. Naval District embracing that portion of the French coast from Fromentine to the Spanish border and in command of Squadron 5, Patrol Force, Atlantic Fleet. He proceeded early in October to London where he made arrangements with Admiral Sims's staff for his new duty.

Confidential instructions for the guidance of the Commander, U.S. Naval Forces, Northern Russia were given McCully by Sims on October 10. In regard to policy he was directed to call promptly on the Ambassador and to consult with him freely, and to read the President's proclamation on Siberian intervention and the dispatch of the Department of State to the Ambassador in Russia. Like Captain Bierer to whom these pronouncements had been communicated, as has been seen, he was to shape his policy accordingly. He was to cooperate with the Allied military and naval forces so far as the foregoing policies permitted. Cordial relations were to be maintained with the Senior U.S. Army Officer. He was to support the local Russian government, except when its actions

were contrary to the interests of the Russian people, as the United States wished to be known as a friend. In regard to the operations of his forces he was to be under orders of the senior naval officer of the Allies in Northern Russian waters, who was then Rear Admiral Kemp, R.N., of H.M.S. Glory. Such ordnance equipment was to be taken as would permit interchangeability of supplies with the Allied forces. Care was to be exercised by the medical officer against contagious diseases that might spread among the population and be communicated to the naval personnel, and precautions were to be adopted against frost-bite and scurvy. In supplemental orders of the 15th he was authorized to issue orders transferring officers within his command and travel orders. This was a useful authority and even resulted in the Commander, U.S. Naval Forces in Northern Russia issuing travel orders to Rear Admiral Newton A. McCully. He could order no officer home except on the recommendation of a board of medical survey. Reports were to be made of changes, arrivals, and departures of officers.

Rear Admiral McCully arrived at Murmansk on October 24 under escort of the Kapitan Yoursaovski on board the French cruiser Gueydon, which had been sent to replace the Amiral Aube, and on the afternoon of that day he read his orders before the assembled crew of the Olympia, raised his flag on that vessel, and assumed command of the U.S. Naval Forces in Northern Russia, the designation thereafter used. He brought with him an aid, Ensign Jay Gould, U.S.N.R.F., and a party of enlisted men including three for duty with his staff. He received official calls from the captains of the Glory and the Gueydon, the Russian General Zvegintsov, the commander of the French force ashore, and Lieutenant Rogers, U. S. Army. As the chief officers in Northern Russia were then at Archangel, Rear Admiral

McCully sailed for that place on October 26 on the Olympia, leaving Ensign Oliver E. Cobb, U.S.N.R.F., a storekeeper, and a seaman ashore in Murmansk for special temporary duty.

Off the entrance to the Dvina, Rear Admiral McCully was met on October 28 by Lieutenant Riis and proceeded with him and Ensign Gould on a small tug to Archangel to which the Olympia continued on the following day. He reported to Rear Admiral Kemp and Ambassador Francis and called on Mr. Chaikovsky, Mr. Duroff, the governor general of the northern provinces, Francis Lindley, the British commissioner, Joseph Noulens, the French Ambassador, the Italian charge, General Ironside, and Colonel Stewart. Ambassador Francis was in need of a major surgical operation, and, pursuant to arrangements which had been made by the State and Navy Departments, Rear Admiral McCully had him taken on board the Olympia on November 6 for conveyance to England. The Rear Admiral apparently took the Ambassador's place in the American Embassy, while Ensign Gould and 6 men went ashore for duty with the flag and three others for service with Lieutenant Riis, who continued to serve as acting naval attache. There were still eleven other men at Archangel serving under Ensign Donald H. Hicks, U.S.N.R.F., with the Allied Naval Brigade. The Olympia left Archangel on November 8 under the command of Captain Bierer, whose service in Northern Russia was ended on the departure of the ship from Murmansk on November 13 for Scotland. Mr. DeWitt Clinton Poole, the former consul general at Moscow, who had been appointed special assistant to the ambassador with the rank of counsellor, took the ambassador's place.

After his arrival in England, Captain Bierer proceeded to London for consultation with Admiral Sims and to Paris for consultation with

Admiral Benson. Early in the following year he was ordered home, and in Washington he submitted a report to the Office of Naval Intelligence in which he stated that he had received a deep founded impression that the British and French took a special interest in Northern Russia and particularly the British who because of its resources and possibilities hoped that conditions would so shape themselves that they would be able to secure control or domination of the region.

It seems to have been the intention to have had the Olympia return to Northern Russia, but this did not happen, and for several months after its departure the U.S. Naval Forces in Northern Russia had no forces aside from the personnel stationed ashore. Not a single naval vessel was attached to the command, although a rear admiral had the assignment. An additional vessel had been asked for by Captain Bierer after the occupation of Archangel, but none was provided. When Rear Admiral Green proposed in November to decommission the Kapitan Yourasovski, Rear Admiral McCully was obliged to request that the United States naval personnel then on board that destroyer be allowed to remain until the return of the Olympia.

The armistice of November 11, 1918 had no effect on the Allied intervention in Northern Russia although the need to frustrate German designs no longer existed. It was officially explained that the approach of winter made evacuation impractical and that it would amount to desertion of the Russians who had come to the support of the intervention. The occupation continued because it afforded a means by which the European members of the occupying forces might affect the situation in Russia, which was then developing into a civil war between the Reds (Bolsheviks) and the Whites (tsarists).

At the time of the departure of the Olympia, the United States naval personnel in Northern Russia was disposed as follows: McCully, Gould, Riis, and Ensigns D. M. Hicks and C. S. Bishop in Archangel, the last two being attached to the Allied Naval Brigade as instructors; Ensign J. M. Griffin, U.S.N.R.F., at Onega; Ensign O. E. Cobb as communication officer at Murmansk; eleven enlisted men attached to the flag office in Archangel; and section leaders at Onega (1), Shekuvo (6), and Murmansk (2). Comdr. Wallace Bertholf reported for duty to Rear Admiral McCully at Murmansk on December 12 and was immediately sent on a trip to Archangel with instructions to observe the conditions of navigation between the two places, particularly as to ice in the White Sea and its entrance; and after reporting to the American Embassy to investigate conditions in Archangel and the vicinity. During this mission he reached the front lines south of Archangel in time to be present while advance positions of the Allies were under bombardment.

Rear Admiral McCully's chief concern after his arrival in Northern Russia was to acquaint himself with conditions there both at the ports and in the interior; for this purpose his enforced sojourn on shore gave him ample opportunity. Accompanied by Ensign Gould and Col. J. A. Ruggles, Capt. E. Prince, and Lieut. H. S. Martin, of the United States Military Mission at Archangel, he left that place on November 7 and reached Obozerskaya about 90 miles south on the railroad on the same day. The advance post of the Allied forces at this time was only a few miles south of that point. From Archangel he took passage on the ice breaker Sviatogor with Ensign Gould, two yeomen, and two mess attendants on November 25 for Murmansk, reaching there in two days, whicl

was the length of the usual voyage between the two ports. The Murman railroad was the scene of McCully's next inspection trip, which began on November 29 when he boarded a train at Murmansk with Ensigns Gould, Cobb, and H. C. Taylor, and Lieut. Rogers of the U.S. Army. For this journey General Maynard placed at their disposal his special car, in which the start was not made until the 30th because of the engine's running off the tracks. The party went as far as Soroka, the headquarters of the detachment guarding the southern end of the railroad. Although it was located in the southwestern part of the White Sea, this place was nearly 500 miles from Petrograd by rail. The Allied forces were only 25 miles south of Soroka by this time. In the middle of December, McCully visited Alexandrovsk which he found occupied by a small detachment of troops and by cable and telegraph employees who were discontented because of the poor rations allowed them. The scarcity of decent accommodations in Murmansk led Rear Admiral Green to insist that McCully establish his living quarters on the British armed yacht Josephine.

Having visited both regions under Allied occupation in Northern Russia, Rear Admiral McCully forwarded a general intelligence report to Admiral Sims on December 20 in which he presented information concerning political, financial, military, naval, and economic conditions. He reported that the Allied forces controlled about two-thirds of Archangel province, south to the points already mentioned in connection with his trips and west to the border between Finland and Karelia. Concerning naval conditions there was little to report, for there had been no naval operations. Neither then nor later did the Bolsheviks have naval forces on the open sea, their operations on water being confined by Allied superiority to the rivers and lakes. Part of the

Allied naval forces had gone into winter quarters at either Archangel or Murmansk; the French vessels were at the former place, and the Glory and British armed yachts were at Murmansk, which had the advantage of being open all winter. Ice breakers were employed to keep the route between the two ports open as long as possible.

The foregoing report was one of a series of such periodic reports submitted by McCully to Admiral Sims. These general intelligence reports were factual in character and contained information which was obtained through the efforts of McCully and the officers under his command; it was not supplied to him by the British. Besides these reports which were fairly lengthy, weekly reports such as had been submitted by Captain Bierer were continued. The topics covered by them included the following: vessels present, operations, enemy activities, miscellaneous, recommendations and suggestions, miles steamed during the week, hours at anchor or moored, hours under way, fuel consumed in port, fuel consumed under way, miles per ton of coal. The weekly reports were generally brief and could not have been of great value to Admiral Sim's staff, but they do contain some data which, for historical purposes, supplement that to be found in other documents. In addition, special reports were submitted now and then when events required them.

Part of the naval personnel which had been serving in Northern Russia departed during December and January. In the former month Ensign Gould left on the Yaroslovna, which had on board the French Ambassador, M. Noulens, while in the latter Ensign Taylor and fifteen enlisted men departed on the Aspasia for England, and to the same country went Ensigns Hicks, Bishop, and Griffin with thirteen men on the Junin,

The receipt at Murmansk of an inquiry from Archangel at the end of January 1919 as to the means existing there for the evacuation of Archangel indicated an alarming situation and caused Rear Admiral McCully to embark on the ice breaker Alexander to undertake a personal investigation. Upon his arrival in Archangel on February 5 he conferred with the United States diplomatic and military representatives, the officials of the provisional government, and the British military and naval officers. He learned that the situation was serious but not critical and so reported in a telegram to Admiral Sims. A strong Bolshevik offensive launched in the preceding month had forced the retirement of American and Allied forces from Shenkurst, a town on the Vaga River whichwas the most important position south of Archangel. The military situation of the Allied forces at this time was regarded by the American military attache as very unsatisfactory; they were scattered in small detachments; communications were slow and difficult; the enemy forces were superior in number of men and quantity of artillery; and it appeared that further withdrawals would have to be made.

During this visit to Archangel, Real Admiral McCully made another trip on the railroad to Obozerskaya on February 7, continuing on the next day to the advance positions. These he found to be under continuous bombardment by the Bolsheviks who employed observation balloons in directing their fire. By this time the American troops had adapted themselves to the climate and the British rations and were in exceptionally healthy condition and in a better state of morale than when McCully had previously seen them. Reinforcements supplied by the Murmansk command had marched overland from Soroka and strengthened the forces in this region.

Reaching Murmansk on board the S.S. Beothic on February 23, Rear Admiral McCully found the U.S.S. Yankton in port and immediately took up his quarters aboard it. Under Comdr. Richard S. Galloway this vessel had reached there on February 8, bringing, for duty with McCully, Lieut. Adolph P. Schneider, U.S.N., Lieut. Milton O. Carlson, U.S.N., and Ensign Maxwell B. Saben, U.S.N.R.F. It also brought equipment for a radio station, and, after the approval of McCully was obtained of the preliminary arrangements which had been made during his absence, the erection of the station was begun on Soviet Hill by working parties from the Yankton. Previously communication had been had through the cable and the radio on the British and French naval vessels, but these methods had proved unsatisfactory. After its completion the naval radio station was strong enough to intercept messages from the United States, Honolulu, and European countries. Lieutenant Carlson was placed in charge of the station in April. On March 15 the Yankton stood down the Kola Inlet to Alexandrovsk where it remained anchored with the Rear Admiral on board until April 4 when it returned to Murmansk. Commander Bertholf reported to McCully on board the Yankton at the end of March; from about this time he functioned as chief of staff.

Right after his return to Murmansk from Archangel, Rear Admiral McCully sent a cablegram on February 25 to Admiral Sims and followed it with a report on the 28th in which he recommended the dispatch of naval reinforcements to Northern Russia. Stating that the military situation in the Archangel region was precarious and that the Allied forces along both the Archangel-Vologda railway and the Murman railway were insufficient, he urged stationing vessels at both Archangel

and Murmansk and providing another to cruise along 1600 miles of coast and visit other ports. One of the vessels should be suitable for a flagship which the Yankton was not, and one ship should serve as a supply ship for the others because great difficulties and uncertainties were being experienced in constantly shipping stores, and these usually arrived in a pillaged condition as a result of their being broached by the crews of the British merchant marine whose morale had deteriorated. As the Allied forces on the Dvina would be at the mercy of the Bolshevik vessels which would be released at an earlier date from the frozen waters of the upper Dvina, he recommended a detachment of twelve submarine chasers with a tender for operations on that river. These would be necessary he stated, if military operations were to be undertaken in the spring. In case relief were to be extended on a large scale, naval port officers would have to be appointed at Archangel, Kem, and Murmansk. Admiral Benson, to whom the request of McCully was referred, advised the department to prepare the Sacramento, a cruiser of the Denver class, and three Eagle boats for duty in Northern Russia, because, as he stated, although our future policy in the region had not been decided upon, it was necessary to meet the situation which had arisen. He also directed Admiral Sims to keep the sub-chasers which it had been planned to return to the United States in readiness.

Two U.S. Naval vessels the Galveston and the Chester arrived at Murmansk on April 8 with 310 men of the 167th U. S. Engineers and forty British replacement troops. Shortly before, the S.S. Stephen had brought in 350 men of the 168th U.S. Engineers and other Allied troops. Brig. Gen. Wilds P. Richardon came on the Chester to take

over the command of the United States troops in Northern Russia; he soon proceeded with his staff and Rear Admiral Green on the ice breaker Canada to Archangel where he superseded Colonel Stewart. After effecting a readjustment of the naval personnel attached to the three naval vessels by making transfers to the Yankton, the Galveston and the Chester sailed for England on the 13th.

It was a month later when the naval reinforcements ordered by Admiral Benson for Northern Russia began to arrive. The cruiser Des Moines, Capt. Zachariah H. Madison, put into Murmansk on May 13 while the Yankton was on a cruise in the White Sea, but it encountered the latter vessel at Ivanovski Bay on the 17th. McCully transferred his flag to the Des Moines on the next day and proceeded to Archangel while the Yankton went to Murmansk. At the latter place arrived on the 22d the Sacramento, Comdr. Otto C. Dowling, and the Eagles 1, 2, and 3 after a week's voyage from Inverness, Scotland. With Commander Bertholf and Lieut. Peter J. Bukowski aboard, the Sacramento on June 5 reached Archangel where the commanding officer reported to McCully on the Des Moines and paid visits to the H.M.S. Cyclops and the Gueydon. The port was a busy place during that month, for American and French troops were being brought in from the interior and evacuated. Rear Admiral McCully, who since his arrival there on the 26th had been conferring with Allied and Russian officials, inspected Eagle No. 1 after its arrival there with Eagle No. 3; Eagle No. 2 also reached that port on June 11. A week later the Yankton escorted into Archangel subchasers 95, 256, and 354, which it had met off Vardo, Norway; together with the British tanker Birchol they completed the 1975 run from Inverness, Scotland in 12 days.

Towards the end of April McCully seems to have contemplated dividing his forces into two divisions, the first consisting of the cruisers and the Eagles to guard the bases at Archangel, Kem, and Murmansk, and the second consisting of the subchasers to operated in the North Dvina River but he had no opportunity to perfect the arrangement. To the officers of the vessels then attached to his command, he issued instructions on April 25 to cultivate close and cordial relations with all the officials in the region and to prepare monthly intelligence reports. Near the end of May he established the Eagle boats as a weekly dispatch service between Murmansk, Archangel and Kem to carry dispatches, mail, and military, naval or diplomatic officials and light freight of an urgent or perishable character; it was to be available for both Russian and Allied use. Passengers, however, had to make their beds on the open decks and provide their own protection. The service was operated by the U.S. naval port officers in cooperation with other port officials in the region. Subsequent instructions stipulated that the dispatch vessels might carry as freight gold, silver or jewels under special circumstances and that bills of lading might be given for them, charges made, and responsibility assumed. Rear Admiral Green regarded this service as an expensive luxury having no connection with naval operations. To a considerable extent this opinion was probably correct.

The staff of the Commander, U.S. Naval Forces in Northern Russia consisted in the spring of 1919 of Commander Bertholf as senior aide and acting chief of staff, Ensign Cobb as aide and flag lieutenant, and Ensign Saben as aide and flag secretary. Bertholf during this period shuttled back and forth between Archangel and Murmansk.

Shifting to the Sacramento on June 15, McCully left Archangel

that day and after visiting Sosnovaya Bay and Keret Bay anchored at Kem harbor. At this place he stayed on Eagle No. 1 for a day and on the Des Moines for two days, and then at the invitation of General Maynard he accompanied him with Lieutenant Cobb on an inspection trip to the Murman railroad front. The party journeyed by train to Medvyejya Gora, a station on the Murman railroad at the northern tip of Lake Onega, which was then the advance base of Allied military and naval operations, and which was only 95 miles from Petrozvodsk farther down the lake. Though some places on the shore of the lake were in Allied possession, the Bolsheviks controlled the lake with a force of armed steamers and tugs. The Allied naval flotilla based at Medvyejya Gora did not have armament that could combat the Bolsheviks. This flotilla included two American motor sailers brought by train from Murmansk and launched on the lake on May 29, operating with crews of American bluejackets under the command of Lieut. Douglas C. Woodward. At the time of McCully's visit one of these boats was being prepared for shipment to the Yankton, and the British were negotiating for the other. The force on the Murman front, in McCully's opinion, was not sufficient for an advance, and the morale of the troops was not good as a result of the withdrawal of part of the Allied forces and the approaching retirement of the American engineer troops who had greatly improved the efficiency of the Murman railroad.

During the last week in June all of the vessels attached to the command assembled in the Gulf of Kandalaksha in the northwestern portion of the White Sea to engage in target practice. McCully joined the proceedings, following his return from the Murman front, at Kiv Bay on June 27 on board subchaser 95, which had picked up him and Lieutenant Cobb at Popov (Port of Kem) on the preceding day. The rear admiral's

flag flew from the Des Moines, the Sacramento, and then the Yankton; on board the last he reached Popov on July 1. With a liberty party of officers and men he went that day on subchaser 256 to Solovetsky Island where on the eastern side of Blagopoluchia haven was a monastery, which was evidently worth the trip for it contained six churches, gardens, cattle yards, and one of the richest sacristies in Russia, constituting a shrine visited by thousands of pilgrims every summer. He continued on the Yankton to Archangel on the 3rd carrying as passengers Lieutenant Rogers, of the American Military Mission at Kem, and an army sergeant. The Des Moines and the subchasers also steamed to Archangel, after the practices were ended, while the Sacramento went to Murmansk.

A phase of activities of the U.S. Naval Forces in Northern Russia--that concerning the naval port officers--which has only been referred to thus far in these pages can now be treated in a continuous fashion. One of the principal duties engaged in by McCully as District Commander at Rochefort, France from February to October 1918 had been the direction of a system of naval port officers located at ports in that district but chiefly in the region of Bordeaux on the Gironde-Garonne River. Thus he had a good background for this aspect of affairs in Northern Russia.

The shipping boom experienced by the ports of Archangel and Murmansk during the war when Russia was an active participant on the Allied side collapsed after her defeat by Germany. The Bolshevik revolution was the signal for the Allies to cease the exportation of war materials to those ports, for they had no desire to strengthen the arms of the Reds nor through them the Germans. When McCully visited Archangel in July 1917, he observed in the harbor sixty-five steamers discharging, awaiting discharge, loading, or discharged, and nine sailing vessels.

At this time about 120,000 tons of goods were being unloaded monthly; indeed, so much was received that year that an immense quantity had to be stored in the open without adequate protection at Bakaritza, pending shipment on the overworked railroad. Immediately after the Bolshevik revolution, however, the Allies instituted an embargo not by publicly announcing it but by withholding licenses for exports of war supplies to Northern Russia, this method being employed in order not to give the Russian people the idea they were being abandoned by the Allies. Early in 1918 the British Admiralty attempted to recover some of the stores at Bakaritza by offering food in exchange, but the Bolsheviks just continued hauling them away. Commerce with the ports of Northern Russia was not completely cut off, for after the Allied forces occupied the region they had to supply themselves with munitions and food and to feed the whole population which numbered three hundred thousand people. During the winter of 1918-1919 supplies unloaded at Murmansk were taken by rail to Kandalaksha and thence by sledges over the 200 mile frozen expanse of the White Sea to Archangel.

The British Navy, which entered Northern Russian waters early in the war to cooperate with the Russian Navy, obtained control of all shipping in both Archangel and Murmansk. By arrangement with the provisional government in Northern Russia this control was continued after the revolution of 1917. It was discontinued at Archangel after the British Navy retired from there in December 1917, but, following the Allied occupation of that port in August 1918, British naval officers again assumed charge. The Principal Naval Transport Officer (P.N.T.O.) at Archangel throughout the period of the intervention

was Commodore Richard Hyde, R.N., who had a number of assistants. During the war French vessels were consigned to the French vice-consul and were discharged and loaded by the Hudson's Bay Company under the general charge of the chief British transport officer. He also handled the unloading of American vessels of which only six appear to have arrived at the port during 1917, though American supplies were brought in in great quantities, undoubtedly, in British and Russian vessels. A British port officer also operated at Murmansk, and later another was stationed at Kem. At all of these places there were Russian and French port officers as well. The British naval transport officers handled all matters connected with shipping: discharging, berthing, ballasting, fueling, repairing, supplying, and sailing. Apparently with the approval of the United States Government, the British, after the intervention began, continued the closing of the Russian Arctic ports, which had been decreed by the Russian Government in April 1916, to other than Allied vessels except by permit issued by the British Admiralty. But, judging from Commander Bertholf's report on his trip to Vardo, Norway in March 1919, the British kept this trade in their own hands by refusing permits. The exportation of Russian products from Archangel was prohibited by Moscow authorities at the time of the Allied intervention, but Allied control made this ineffectual, and, according to the historian, Strakhovsky, the British took away goods valued at 2,793,700 pounds and the French 821,300 pounds--at requisition prices. Indubitably commercial considerations--the opportunity to make a profit--played a part in the British administration of shipping, but then the British, like the French, had lost heavily by the Bolshevik repudiation of the debt for the goods supplied

Russia during the war.

The experiences of the S.S. Portonia, an American ship which reached Archangel in June 1917, reveal some of the difficulties ships encountered in that port. Captain McCully found the crew dissatisfied because they could not go ashore, because their quarters were insufficient, and because they could get no provisions. A number of the crew had no passports and without them the Russian authorities would not permit going ashore. The ship had no seal, and documents without seals were not recognized by the Russians. The ship had to be ballasted with 600 tons of coal at $50 a ton although that amount of cargo could have been loaded except for peculiar regulations by which American vessels were still regarded as neutrals and not eligible for cargo. To top everything else, the ship had no gun for protection against submarines.

Only a few American ships reached Northern Russia during the period of the intervention. In the first part of 1918 Ambassador Francis urged sending shiploads of foodstuffs to Archangel to relieve hunger among the Russian population, whose sources of supply had been interfered with by Czechoslovak operations along the Siberian railroad, to feed the Allied representatives at Vologda should they have to retire to the north, and for propaganda purposes. Not until after the Allied occupation of Archangel, however, when the need was greatly increased, were American ships routed there. The U.S.S. Aniwa and the U.S.S. West Gambo arrived in a convoy on October 12 with flour and Red Cross Stores. These were U.S. Shipping Board vessels operated by the Naval Overseas Transportation Service with naval crews and allotted by the U.S. Shipping Control Committee for this voyage to the British Ministry of Shipping. About the same time the S.S. Ascutney, another U.S. Shipping Board

vessel, arrived with a cargo of Red Cross supplies.

The Aniwa remained in port nearly a month, not departing until November 10. It reached the entrance to the Dvina in the evening of October 11, but remained there at anchor overnight. Early the next morning upon receiving a signal to proceed into the harbor, it went ahead a short distance and then stopped to pick up the pilot, who came from the light vessel stationed at the entrance, and a boarding officer. The latter soon shoved off, and the vessel followed the Dvina River channel under pilotage, anchoring at Archangel at 1:08 P.M. Over an hour and a half later a customs official and a lieutenant commander from the British transport office came aboard in separate tugs, the former to make an inspection and the latter with orders. During their visits the captain was ashore on official business. While the vessel awaited discharging, personnel attached to it, including liberty parties, went ashore. On the 14th a representative of the American consul came on board as did the representative of the British transport office, both of whom made subsequent visits. Throughout the stay in the port a guard was maintained on the ship and apparently on the shore nearby. Discharging began on the 18th and was completed on the 31st when the loading of 1200 tons of flax for ballast started. Two stevedores were detected in the act of smuggling flour off ship. Hatches were sealed by a customs officer. A representative of the American consul came aboard again on the 28th with papers for the captain. Rear Admiral McCully came aboard on November 1. Oil was pumped into tanks from the British S.S. Seattle beginning on the next day. After the loading was finished on November 9, British and Russian control officers came aboard. Before the departure on the 10th immigration officials visited the ship. A pilot conducted

it down the Dvina to the light ship where he was taken away in a small boat.

The experiences of the West Gambo were very similar to those of the Aniwa. In connection with the discharging of some ordnance supplies a visit was made by a British ordnance officer. Lieutenant Riis, the U.S. naval attache, twice came on board this vessel whereas no mention is made in the log of the Aniwa of visits by him to it. Discharging began on the 16 and was completed on the 31st, a total of 6269 tons of flour. It departed from the dock under pilotage on the next day to take on fuel from the Seattle. Some passengers were brought on board for passage to the United States at the request of the American ambassador and with the consent of the naval authorities. Under orders issued by Commodore Hyde it proceeded to sea on November 2. No references were found in regard to its taking on cargo or ballast.

While the Ascutney was engaged in taking on flax and coal, the Chief engineer on the morning of October 21 discovered a fire in the main cross bunker. He reported immediately to the captain, and the removal of coal from the bulkhead was begun in order to locate the fire. That afternoon the master made a report to the British transport office, but the officers sent aboard by Commodore Hyde did not enter the bunker, according to a statement of the chief engineer, and saw no fire. When summoned to Commodore Hyde's office on the 26th, Lieutenant Riis learned from him that the master of the Ascutney had called several times claiming there was a fire on his ship, which the Commodore disbelieved on the basis of reports submitted by his subordinates and charged the master with having a lively imagination and possibly other reasons for holding his ship in port as long as possible. Riis saw the master that day, and, after receiving from

him the assurance that there was a fire, suggested that he be informed if it got worse and he would arrange for a board of inquiry. It shortly got worse, being communicated to the cargo of flax, and help had to be afforded by both the Glory and the Olympia. To extinguish the fire the holds had to be flooded, and this forced beaching the ship on the flats opposite Archangel; then the holds had to be pumped out, the ship taken along side the dock and the cargo discharged in order that the wet portion could be landed and new cargo and coal loaded. Captain Bierer and other officers attached to the Olympia, constituting a board of investigation, conducted an examination of the ship during the first three days of November and submitted a report in which the conclusion was reached that the fire in the cross bunker had originated from spontaneous combustion and that the heat from it ignited the flax; no evidence of incendiarism was found. Slight damage was suffered by the vessel, but damage to the cargo of flax exceeded half a million dollars. So the remissness of the P.N.T.O. in not receiving with credence the master's report of the fire and taking prompt measures to discover and extinguish it turned out to be a costly mistake.

Theft as well as fire was experienced by the Ascutney. Of 119,000 cases of Red Cross goods shipped on this vessel, the Red Cross officials reported a shortage of 4564 cases and damage amounting to 50% to seventy bags of sugar for which a claim was made. Up to March 1919 this was the outstanding case of theft of cargo encountered by the U.S. Shipping Board.

Since they were promulgated during war time, the following regulations are of interest although they antedate the Allied intervention:

COMPULSORY REGULATION

relating to access to the shore from ships arriving at the Port of Archangel from abroad, and the visiting of such ships by casual strangers. Issued by the Commander-in-Chief of the Town of Archangel and of the White Sea District by virtue of Sec. 1 Para. 19 of Regulations regarding places declared to be under martial law. (Supplement to Art. 23 vol. 2 of the Civil Code).

1. All persons arriving at the port of Archangel on foreign-going vessels (including ships' crews) are required to be in possession of a passport or a document certifying to their identity with a photograph attached thereto. The Master of the ship is responsible for the fulfilment of this regulation.

Note. Consular certificates based on verbal declarations cannot in this case be considered to take the place of passports.

2. All subjects of neutral states and passengers on and crews of ships sailing under a neutral flag are absolutely forbidden to go ashore.

Note. The landing of passengers from neutral ships is permitted only on the authorization of Russian officials having special power to do so.

3. If there is no war material (Government or private) on a neutral ship and if at the same time the ship is not berthed alongside a military discharging area, the Master of such a ship and one of the crew selected by the Master alone have the right to go ashore. The Master is required immediately on arrival in the port of Archangel (il. e. at Chijovka) to notify the Port Defence Officer in writing of the person thus selected. When the said person is given leave to go ashore, the Master must provide him with a leave permit in the Russian language signed by himself and sealed with the ship's seal.

Note. If a neutral ship is moored alongside a military discharging area, and also as long as there is war material on a neutral ship, the Master is permitted, as an exception, to go ashore once only on the ship's business for a period not exceeding 8 hours and he must be accompanied by an officer from the Marine Transport Headquarters.

4. Russian and Allied vessels are divided into two categories A and B:
a) to category A belong all ships containing general war cargoes either Government or private, until such cargo has been discharged, and also all vessels without exception while they are lying alongside military discharging areas.

b) all other ships belong to category B.

5. Passengers and crews of allied ships in category A and such Russian ships in category A as still have on board high explosives (of the first category) undischarged, and also all subjects of allied states on board Russian ships in category A are absolutely forbidden

to go ashore.

Note. (1) The Master (or in his stead the Chief Officer) of an allied ship in category A or a Russian ship with high explosives is permitted, as an exception, after the ship has stopped to go ashore once only on the ship's business and for a period not exceeding 12 hours.

Note. (2) Passengers on allied vessels in category A and Russian vessels with high explosives may be taken ashore only by the military authorities. Military units may go ashore with the permission of the local military authorities only if required to be present at discharging operations or for dispatch to their destination.

6. The crews of allied vessels in category B and all Russian vessels with the exception of those containing high explosives are permitted to go ashore on the responsibility of the Master under the following conditions:

a) The Master and his Chief Officer must not be absent from the ship at the same time;

b) The Chief and Second Engineers are also forbidden to be absent at the same time;

c) Not more than half of the crew may be absent from the ship at the same time;

d) The Master may grant permission to go ashore only to such persons as are in possession of passports or certificates of indentity (with photographs attached) acknowledged as being in order by the Port Defence Officials at the entrance to the Port of Archangel (Chijovka);

e) Leave may only be granted to ship's officers (excluding the Master) and crews from 6 a.m. up to 10 p.m. and only on the issue of leave permits in the Russian language signed by the Master and sealed with the ship's seal.

Note. (1) Officers and crews of Russian ships, provided that they are Russian subjects, may be granted leave by Masters in exceptional cases for a longer period than is laid down in Sec. 6 above, but this period must not exceed three days.

Note. (2) When a Russian ship is lying alongside a military discharging area the passengers and crew of such a Russian ship may be allowed to pass through that area by means of a list of their names and if accompanied by one of the ship's officers and a Port Defence Official; the same list gives them the right of readmittance through the military discharging area to their ship, provided they are again accompanied by an officer and a Port Defence Official.

7. Persons who have obtained permission to go ashore from a ship

(Sections 3 and 6) must show their leave permits whenever required to do so by the local authorities. It is forbidden to go ashore wilfully without a leave permit or to return to the ship late.

8. If any person wilfully goes ashore from a ship (without permission or in contravention of the rules laid down in Sections 2 and 5 of the present Regulations), the Master must immediately inform in writing the Defence Officer of the military discharging area or the harbour authorities through the Custom House official on the spot, and his Consul.

9. It is forbidden on the responsibility of the Master to admit on board vessels in category A any persons not possessing the regular permits of admittance to military discharging areas.

10. Personsguilty of infringing this Compulsory Regulation render themselves liable under administrative order to a fine not exceeding 3000 roubles, or to imprisonment for a period not exceeding three months, or to detention for the same period.

11. This Compulsory Regulation comes into force on May 10th, 1917, and from that date as far as the Port of Archangel is concerned Regulation No. 956 of January 25th, 1917, is cancelled.

(signed) N. SAVITSKY Commander-in-Chief.

Archangel,
April 30th, 1917.
No. 4612.

The pilots who conducted the U.S. Naval vessels up the Dvina to Archangel were picked up at the light vessel at the mouth of the river or from the first appearance of ice to the close of navigation at the Modyugski lighthouse. The captains usually conned the vessel along with the pilots in order to familiarize themselves with the channel, but because of a bar and the changeability of the channel in which dredging operations had been carried on for years it was the practice to take a pilot. In the harbor pilots were also employed in changing anchorages, docking, and taking the vessel away from the dock. The voyage down the river was also under pilotage. On the Kola Inlet pilots were employed to steer the vessels up to Murmansk, and they were also taken on board at Kem. A schedule of fees was established for pilot service and towage. Vessels were some times delayed at the mouth of the Dvina because the tide and daylight did not serve. Towards the end of the year with the approach of the Arctic night the hours of daylight became very short while in the summer there was daylight twenty-four hours in the day.

Not long after his arrival in Northern Russia, Rear Admiral McCully gave attention to commercial matters. The results of his study were presented in a report on the "Port of Archangel, Russia" submitted to Admiral Sims on November 28, 1918. It contained a description of the port and its facilities. Dated a week previously are "Instructions to Naval Port Officers" and "Instructions for Commanding Officers of U. S Naval Vessels and Masters of other U. S. Vessels Arriving in Ports of Northern Russia." Both of these papers were academic at the time, for there were no port officers and no American shipping of any kind in Northern Russia. In

his general intelligence report of December 20, he pointed out that the province was not self-sustaining and that it was being supported by the British on an extremely limited ration. The population needed anti-scorbutics to combat scurvy, drugs which were almost entirely lacking, and preserved milk for children as there was no fresh milk. Limited aid was being furnished by the American Red Cross, but this in addition to what the Allies were doing was not enough to prevent suffering. Since it looked as though American shipping would be directed to the region, McCully continued his investigation during the winter, and on January 21, 1919 he addressed to Admiral Sims a special report on "Steamer Routes from United States to Ports of the Murman Coast and White Sea." In this he stated that contrary to the data presented in the Arctic Pilot prepared by the British Admiralty from the Russian Naval Hydrographic Office Sailing Directions the White Sea was accessible for nine rather than five months of the year, and he presented corrections for the guidance of American ships that might go there.

In compliance with the recommendation of McCully, Lieuts. Adolph P. Schneider and Milton O. Carlson were sent to Northern Russia on the Yankton in February 1919 to fill the positions of port officers at Archangel and Murmansk. Orders were issued to them on February 25 by which the former was to be port officer at Archangel and the latter at Murmansk. Lieutenant Schneider was instructed to report to Commodore Hyde, P.N.T.O. at Archangel, to cooperate with and assist him as a member of his staff. Lieutenant Carlson was directed to establish an office at Murmansk but to report to Capt. J. O. Hatcher, R.N., D.P.N.T.O., (Deputy) for duty on his staff. They were specifically

told to act under the direction of the British officers, and they both became located in their offices. Carlson was also given command of the naval radio station at Murmansk.

Instructions issued to the naval port officer by McCully on March 7 stated that his mission was to expedite the movements of all U. S. shipping; to be in charge of all matters connected with naval vessels and naval personnel in the port of Archangel; to assist the arrival, discharge, repair, loading, supply, ballasting, and departure of all U.S. vessels under the direction of the P.N.T.O. in cooperation with the U.S. consul and the commercial attache; to be guidedby the diplomatic representative in matters affecting international relations; to maintain friendly relations with Russian and Allied officials; to keep informed about shipping matters in order to be able to assist the master of American vessels; and to act as communication officer at Archangel, keeping the commander of the forces informed.

American shipping to Northern Russia did not develop to a degree commensurate with the preparations that were made to handle it. Nor was it the intention of the United States Government and the governments of Great Britain and France to allow Russia to engage in external trade. After the prohibition of trade instituted as a result of the Bolshevik revolution, American exports to European Russia dropped from over 315 million in 1917 to less than nine million in 1918. Licenses for exports were not granted after February 1918 without the permission of the Department of State, and a year later this department began refusing all requests for export licenses. But the United States did not go so far as to participate in the nava

blockade of Bolshevik ports maintained by the British and French navies. Such American goods as reached Northern Russia arrived largely in foreign bottoms.

The naval port officers at both Murmansk and Archangel had some American business before they were demobilized. The S.S. Sliedrecht reached the former place in May 1919 with a cargo of foodstuffs which were discharged with great difficulty because of the lack of sufficient stevedores. These were obtained through Russian authorities who had trouble procuring them. The British naval transport officer had been unable to improve conditions. Lieutenant Carlson thought that a stevedoring department directly under the transport officer and entirely independent of the petty Russian officials would improve the labor supply. Two vessels chartered by the U. S. Shipping Board, the Norwegian ship Sark and the Chinese Hwak Yik arrived at Archangel in June from Philadelphia each carrying over 4,000 tons of seed, which was distributed in Northern Russia in order that crops of grain and vegetables could be produced. Other employment was furnished the American port officers in connection with our naval vessels and probably with the British, French, and Russian ships which carried on most of the shipping with Northern Russia during 1919.

American withdrawal from Northern Russia having been decided upon, the port officers were detached. Lieutenant Carlson left Murmansk on a leave of absence on June; his place was occupied by Ensign H. D. Glover until the end of the month when the activities of the port officer and the radio station were taken over by the Yankton. Lieutenant Schneider was ordered detached and to London on

July 15.

Notes upon the navigation of the waters in Northern Russia collected by the members of McCully's staff and the commanding officers of the vessels were compiled into a report of fifty pages. As a supplement to the printed directions which were then available, this would have been a valuable guide for our naval forces had they remained in those waters.

The last of the Allied nations to provide forces for the intervention in Northern Russia, the United States was about the first to decide upon their withdrawal. These forces consisted of soldiers conscripted under the selective service act to fight Germany; consequently it was impossible to retain them in Northern Russia to fight Reds. The continuance of our soldiers there after the Armistice during the winter of 1918-1919, in which they engaged in hostilities with the Bolsheviks, led to demands from the public and from members of Congress for their withdrawal. The war in Northern Russia was not popular with the soldiers themselves, particularly as they were not told why they were kept there to fight the Bolsheviks against whom they were not interested in waging war.

Many momentous questions engaged the thoughts and energy of our statesmen composing the American Commission to Negotiate Peace, which headed by President Wilson reached Paris at the middle of December 1918 and remained there for many months. The fate of our troops in Northern Russia was somewhat lost sight of, but not for long because they raised a clamor which neither the Arctic night, nor deep snows, nor distance could long muffle. At the end of January 1919 William C. Bullitt, a member of the American delegation at Paris, suggested

to Colonel House, one of the American commissioners, that, since the Allied forces at Archangel were no longer serving a useful purpose, that they be removed on ice breakers across the White Sea to Kem whence they could be entrained for Murmansk. Shortly afterwards, Mr. Poole, referring to the discontent of the soldiers, suggested to the Department of State that an announcement be made to them to the effect that they would be removed by a specified time. When a War Department radio announcement that the American troops in Northern Russia would be withdrawn early in the spring was intercepted on February 19, the American embassy at Archangel was forced to state that the message referred to troops then in the region and did not mean that complete American withdrawal had been decided upon. The morale of the troops continued to decline, resulting in March in open refusal to return to the front after a rest period. By April the retirement of American forces was determined upon, and Brig. Gen. Wilds P. Richardson was sent to arrange it. The railroad transportation troops that arrived on the Murman front at this time were sent for the purpose of rehabilitating the Murman railroad in order that it could be used to reinforce the Archangel front, if necessary, and to facilitate the withdrawal of American and Allied troops as soon as the weather conditions would permit. Admiral Benson, then in Paris as naval advisor to the American peace commissioners, inquired of President Wilson on May 1, 1919 whether our policy was to be one of active operations or withdrawal and was informed that it was the latter, which information enabled him to prepare orders in regard to the disposition of the naval forces in Northern Russia, the effect of which will be presented.

Most of the American soldiers were withdrawn from the Archangel region during June in transports which had brought reinforcements of British troops. In preparation for their embarkation most of them were brought in from the front by the end of May. Their attitude was expressed by the weekly report of the Des Moines of May 29 in the words: "The men are all pretty sore and probably will talk a good deal on arriving in the United States." Over 1800 officers and men of the 339th Infantry sailed on the transport Czar, and 323 miscellaneous troops on the British hospital ship Kalyan on June 3 for Brest, France; French troops left on the same day on the Stephen. The Menominee and the Porto took away more than 2000 others of the same regiment, the 337th Ambulance Company, the 310th Sanitary Train, and casuals on the 15th and 16th, respectively. The American charge, Mr. Poole, also departed on the Menominee in what was a general exodus of Allied diplomatic representatives, affairs being left in the hands of the consuls. A few members of the headquarters staff took passage on the Quilpue on the 25th to be followed three days later by over 700 members of the 310th Engineers on board the Steigerwald. In the aggregate 172 officers and 4949 soldiers were embarked during the month. Some forty soldiers were accompanied by Russian girls whom they had married. The transportation of these forces both from the front to the port and from the port to western Europe was arranged with efficiency by the British naval transport officers. There remained for later evacuation a small headquarters staff under General Richardson at Archangel and 674 men of the 167th and 168th Companies of transportation troops along the Murman railroad. Of the forces engaged, there had been 553 casualties, including 244 dead, 305 wounded, and four prisoners.

In the midst of the troop embarkations, Admiral McCully wrote on June 14 to Rear Admiral Harry S. Knapp, who had succeeded Sims as Force Commander, U.S. Naval Forces Operating in European Waters on March 31, that the forces under his command were more than sufficient for the purpose of observation, communication, and report and might be decreased although they should not be withdrawn entirely. He believed the presence of U.S. naval vessels desirable because they represented a power without selfish interests to serve. In order to gain more knowledge of the region, he proposed that the Des Moines and one of the sub-chasers cruise along the northern coast of Russia during the summer. By order of the Secretary of the Navy of June 30, two days after the signing of the peace treaty at Versailles, McCully was detached from the command in Northern Russia and directed to proceed to London. Upon receiving this order at Archangel he made arrangements for his departure. The Yankton left there on July 5 with Lieutenant Schneider and Ensign Saben as passengers for Murmansk whence it proceeded with subchasers 95, 256 and 354 on the 9th for England. Commande Bertholf was detached on the following day; soon after reaching England he was attached to the American Military Mission to Armenia as naval liaison officer under Major General James G. Harbord, a position which took him into southern Russia. McCully transferred his command to Captain Madison of the Des Moines on the 9th and proceeded with Lieutenant Cobb on Eagle No. 1 to Murmansk. Leaving that place on the Sacramento four days later, they reached Bergen on the 18th and by other conveyances arrived in London on the 21st. After serving as senior United States member on the Allied Naval Armistice Commission and as a naval advisor to the peace commission at Paris, McCully was assigned in December 1918

to the Department of State for duty as a special agent to observe and report upon conditions in southern Russia and to establish an informal connection with General Denikin, leader of the White forces operating there, a mission which took him to the opposite section of Russia and which lasted almost a year. The small detachment of blue-jackets which had been operating in the naval flotilla on Lake Onega under Lieutenant Woodward left the lake on July 9, embarked on Eagles Nos. 2 and 3 at Popov, and reported on board the Des Moines at Archangel. At the time of its withdrawal the motor sailer which had been taken from the Galveston was transferred to the British in order to strengthen their forces on the lake.

The Des Moines and the Eagles left for Murmansk on July 18 to cover the withdrawal of the railroad troops who were then in camp at Kola awaiting transportation. Captain Madison felt strongly and so cabled Admiral Knapp that the forces should be withdrawn promptly as their presence embarrassed and made difficulties for the British. The demolition of the radio station at Murmansk was undertaken by the crew of the Des Moines. All U.S. naval interests and activities were closed out here at this time. The transportation troops embarked here at the end of July. Both the British and the Russian government of General Miller wanted these troops to remain, but they refused to volunteer since they would lose the benefits of their draft status, and so they were brought home.

In compliance with an order from Admiral Green, the Des Moines and Eagles Nos. 2 and 3 returned to Archangel on July 23. When Captain Madison reported there, he learned that mutinous uprisings had taken place among the conscripted Russian troops on the front and that they had murdered some of their officers and gone over to the Bolsheviks.

The morale of the Russian troops had been seriously affected by the American withdrawal, he wrote to Admiral Knapp, and the impression had been particularly bad because the gradual manner in which the evacuation had been effected had kept attention on it. He again urged the withdrawal of the American naval forces, which were in the peculiar position of not being able to participate with the British Navy in active operations because of instructions from Washington and yet which were dependent upon the British for supplies. If the U.S. naval vessels were to be allowed to remain as part of the combined forces, they should be unrestricted, otherwise they should be withdrawn. In view of the circumstances he favored the latter alternative. The United States flag could be shown in the region by assigning vessels from the European station for short cruises during which they would be independent of British control and supplies. The recall of the vessels, moreover, would relieve the monotony which their crews were beginning to experience. Despite the status of the American vessels, Admiral Green assured Captain Madison that there would be no question or hesitation about furnishing supplies and fuel while they remained on the station regardless of duty performed.

The continuance of the naval vessels in the region was favored by the diplomatic representatives stationed at Archangel, who had received an appeal from General Miller and who recommended that at least one warship be kept at that place in order to make the removal of the American military forces appear less urgent and abrupt and to await the departure of the embassy. This recommendation was approved by General Richardson. Robert Lansing, the Secretary of State, forwarded it to the Navy Department with his indorsement receiving a reply from

the acting Secretary of the Navy, Franklin D. Roosevelt, dated August 15, that orders had been sent on July 18 for the retention of the Des Moines at Archangel until further notice.

The Des Moines remained at Archangel from the time of its arrival there on July 25 until its departure from Northern Russia. It landed a party of fifty bluejackets on the 31st under Lieutenant Woodward to assist in keeping order as a shore patrol at Solombola. Relieved from time to time, these men were quartered in the Russian naval barracks; this duty was continued without striking incident until September 7. The American military headquarters closed on August 5 and General Richardson departed on the 23rd. He was followed on September 3 by Colonel Ruggles and the members of the United States Military Mission. All of the embassy staff sailed for London on the Kildonan Castle on September 2, except the consul, Felix Cole, and two others, who finally left on the 14th. On the latter date the Des Moines, having concluded all matters connected with the service of U.S. naval vessels in the waters of Northern Russia, made its last journey down the Dvina and proceeded to Harwich, England.

There remained at Archangel after the departure of the naval forces only a few military officers connected with the Graves Registration Bureau whose task it was to arrange for the transportation of the bodies of the American Army and Navy dead which had already been assembled at the port. The bodies of the dead were brought to New York in November where they were claimed by their relatives.

Near the end of his command in Northern Russia, Captain Madison wrote the Secretary of the Navy an appreciation of the services rendered the U.S. Naval Forces in Northern Russia by the British Navy. The most

friendly relations, he stated, had existed between the personnel of the forces and those of the British and French naval forces. Concerning his commanding officer, Admiral Green, he declared "All matters of command and duty have been handled smoothly and with a mutual understanding that has been most satisfactory and pleasing." The British naval transport officers had handled matters connected with fuel, supplies, and transportation of the naval forces with good will and efficiency.

The British continued in Northern Russia after the withdrawal of the American forces but not for long. The transports which took away the American soldiers in June brought British volunteers who were used to launch an offensive against the Bolsheviks. This was unsuccessful, for the Russians mutinied, forcing the British at last to make preparations for evacuation. General Lord Rawlinson arrived at Archangel on August 5 to coordinate the arrangements for evacuation on that and the Murmansk railroad front. When a puolic announcement was made on August 20 of the British intention to withdraw, no marked excitement was evinced by the Russian military or civilian population, who, however, were offered the opportunity to leave the country, and about 5000 who could furnish satisfactory evidence of character and political views were carried away, three steamers to the Baltic and two to southern Russia where Whites were still in control. At the end of August further British reinforcements arrived to assist in the withdrawal. The conduct of operations was turned over to the Russians, who had chosen to remain and continue the struggle against the Bolsheviks, and on September 27 the British sailed from Archangel. Kem was abandoned on the 29, and on October 12 the last of the Allied troops embarked from Russian soil at Murmansk.

Although it failed in its largest objective--the overthrow of the Bolsheviks in conjunction with other anti-Red forces--the Allied intervention in Northern Russia prolonged the struggle between the Reds and the Whites and thus kept the Reds from spreading Bolshevik principles, which were anathema to the neighboring nations, outside of the boundaries of Russia. In the meantime the new countries on its borders had time in which to erect governments and organize armies. The American participation and early withdrawal influenced the British to evacuate and forsake any imperialistic designs they may have entertained and encouraged Bolshevik propaganda which was influential in instigating the mutinies that finally forced the British out. Not until the end of 1933 were diplomatic relations established between the Soviet Government and the United States.

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National Archives

Bureau of Naval Personnel
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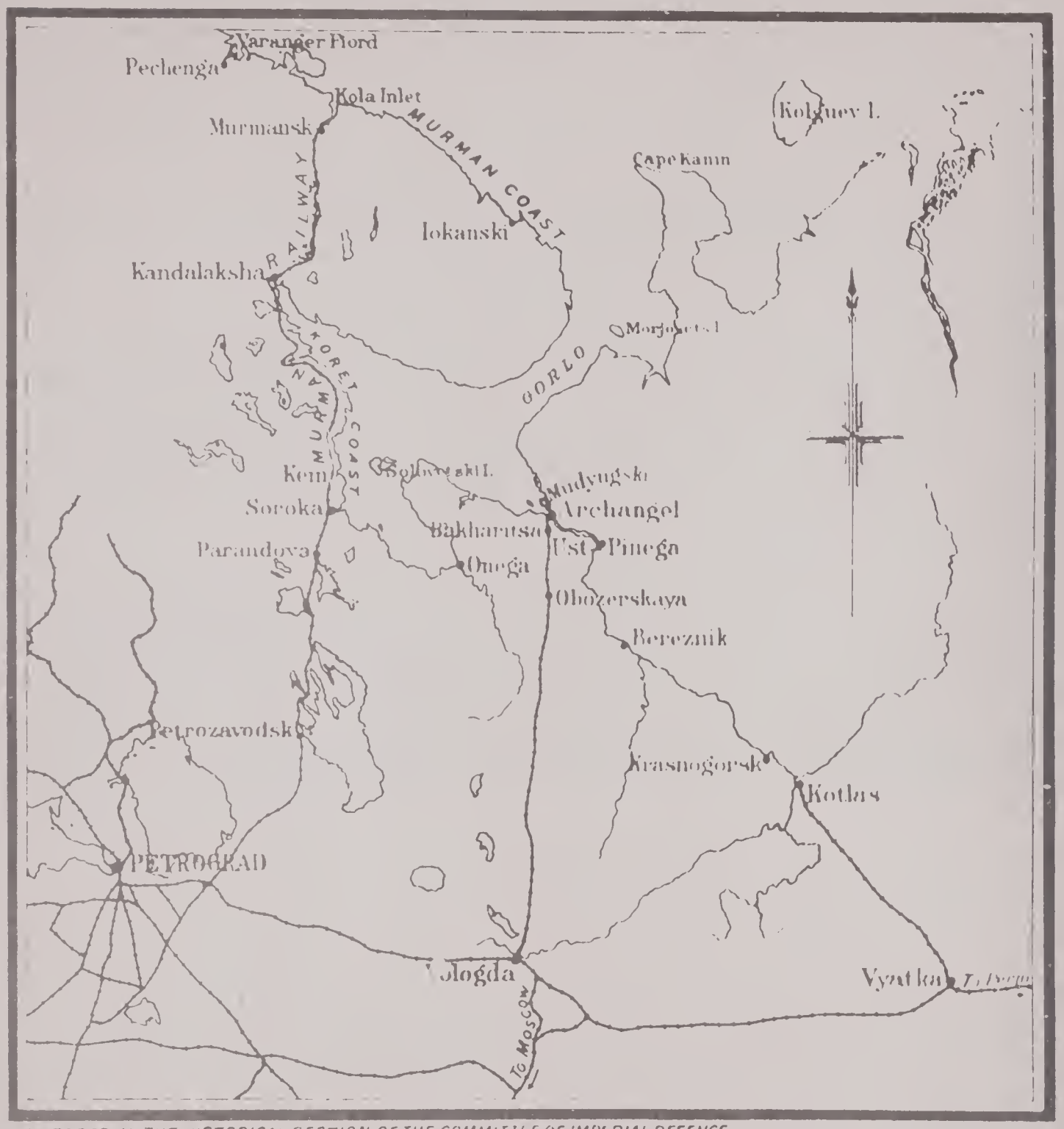
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RAILWAY SYSTEM IN NORTH RUSSIA.



PREPARED IN THE HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE COMMITTEE OF IMPERIAL DEFENCE.

Ordnance Survey

SCALE OF MILES

100 50 0 100 200 300 400

Reproduced from Henry Newbolt's, History of the Great War. Naval Operations. (New York, 1931), vol. V, opposite p.320.

Administrative Reference Service Report No. 6

AMERICAN NAVAL OCCUPATION AND GOVERNMENT OF GUAM, 1898-1902

Prepared by

Dr. Henry P. Beers

APR 1 1944

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Under the Supervision of

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Lt. Cmdr. E. J. Leahy, Director, Office of Records Administration, Administrative Office,
Navy Department

Office of Records Administration
Administrative Office
Navy Department
March 1944

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Note:

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CHAPTER I

CAPTURE OF THE ISLAND OF GUAM

Early on the morning of June 20, 1898, the U. S. cruiser Charleston, with the transports, City of Pekin, Australia, and City of Sydney, rounded the northern tip of the island of Guam. The vessels proceeded in column down its western coast to execute the mission of capturing the island. Part way down this shore, the Charleston entered and searched Agana Bay and finding no ships there rejoined the convoy and steamed south to the port of San Luis d'Apra where it was expected a Spanish gunboat would be found and which was believed to be fortified. As the warship advanced into the harbor showing the American flag, a brigantine the Minatocawa, anchored therein hastily raised the colors of a Japanese merchantman. Admidst rain squalls which made it difficult to discern objects in the bay and on shore, the Charleston under orders of its commander, Capt. Henry Glass, and piloted by T. A. Hallett, the third officer of the Australia, a former whaler who had visited the harbor a number of times, entered the channel leading into the bay close to Orote Point, passing unmolested under Fort Santiago, which had it been armed could have battered the ship without any damage to itself, for it was too high for the guns of the Charleston to reach it. Proceeding into the harbor, the Charleston came within range of Fort Santa Cruz located on a coral reef in the middle of the harbor, and upon orders of the captain some shots from its 3-pounders were fired at this fort. No reply came from the fort, and the guns of the warship ceased firing; it went ahead a short distance and anchored in a position to command the harbor.

The Charleston had not long been at anchor before a boat flying the Spanish flag came alongside carrying the officials who customarily boarded visiting vessels. These were Lt. Comdr. Francisco Garcia Gutierrez, the captain of the port, and Surgeon José Romero Aguilar, the health officer. Accompanying them was Frank Portusach, the only American citizen on the island, who, having recognized the ships as American, came to visit his fellow countrymen and to act as interpreter. The Spanish officials were taken by the captain to his cabin. They apologized, according to several accounts, for the inability of the governor to return the salute accorded the island by the Charleston, explaining that it could not be done until guns were brought to the bay. As they had not learned of the existence of war between the United States and Spain, in their isolation, the Spaniards were much surprised to be informed that the firing was not saluting and to be told that they were prisoners. Both were paroled, however, in order to acquaint the governor of the island with the situation and to carry to him orders to appear on the Charleston at once.

While this message was being conveyed to Agana, the convoy made preparations to complete the conquest of the island. In compliance with orders from Captain Glass, the City of Pekin, which was under charter to the Navy, entered the harbor in order to coal the Charleston, and upon the captain's suggestion the Australia was also piloted in, while the City of Sydney hove to outside until the following morning. The harbor was examined, and dangers to navigation were buoyed. Word came from the governor late in the afternoon that it was against the law for him to board foreign vessels, so, Captain Glass, despite his chagrin at this lack of compliance on the part of an obviously weak enemy, arranged for a meeting on shore in the morning. That evening he met with General Anderson in command of the troops on board the transports to perfect plans for a landing party to be sent ashore in the morning.

While a landing force composed of marines from the Charleston and the City of Pekin and two companies of Oregon Volunteers from the Australia was readied and towed by the steam launch of the Charleston part way up the harbor to the vicinity of the Japanese ship, Lt. William Braunersreuther and Ensign Waldo Evans proceeded under a flag of truce in a whaleboat manned by four armed bluejackets and accompanied by an interpreter and two correspondents to the landing at Piti. Here Lt. Col. Juan Marina, the governor of Guam, was found with his staff, and an ultimatum for the surrender of the island within thirty minutes was presented by the lieutenant, who addressing the governor in Spanish emphasized the uselessness of resistance by pointing out the warship in the harbor and the three transports filled with soldiers. After consulting with his staff in a neighboring building, the governor reappeared twenty-nine minutes



Captain Henry Glass, War Commander of the U. S. S. *Charleston*

later and handed Lieutenant Braunersreuther a letter which he opened and found to contain intelligence of the island's capitulation to superior force. The lieutenant then informed the Spaniards that they were his prisoners and would have to accompany him on board ship. They protested on the ground that they had not anticipated this and were not prepared, but the lieutenant insisted although he allowed them to write to their families. The party of Spaniards, including Governor Marina, Lieutenant Commander Gutierrez, Surgeon Romero, and Pedro Duarte Anducar, captain of naval infantry and secretary to the governor, were embarked and taken aboard the Charleston shortly after noon. On his return trip with the prisoners Lieutenant Braunersreuther encountered the two divisions of the landing party and directed them to return to their ships.

Shortly after two o'clock Captain Glass and his executive officer, Lt. Comdr. Gottfried Blocklinger with three correspondents were pulled across the harbor to Fort Santa Cruz where at 2:45 the American flag was raised. Betokening American possession of the island, this act was accompanied by a national salute of twenty-one guns from the Charleston and the playing of the Star Spangled Banner by the bands on the transports. That evening the captain sent out his dinghy to lower and bring back the flag, so that not even this symbol of American authority remained.

In the middle of the afternoon after the flag raising, Lieutenants Braunersreuther and Myers, Ensign Evans, and Passed Assistant Surgeon Ammen Farenholt with forty marines and a number of bluejackets in four boats landed at Piti to receive the surrender of the Spanish garrison, which the governor had provided the proper orders for in the morning. This force consisted of two companies, one of Spaniards and one of natives; both were disarmed, and the latter was allowed to go free much to their joy, while the former, numbering fifty-four men, with all the arms were ordered into a barge, transported to the convoy, and placed in the steerage on board the City of Sydney. The officers of this naval infantry, Lieutenants José Barruesco and Marcelino Ramos, and the other Spanish officers who had been taken on board the Charleston in the morning were given staterooms on the City of Sydney, accommodations being lacking on the warship for so many extra passengers. On June 22, after finishing coaling, the Charleston and the transports continued on their transpacific voyage to their major objective. No American or Spanish Army or Navy personnel were left on the newly captured island!

The capture of Guam was an incident in the voyage of the Charleston and its convoy to the Philippine Islands where, after the outbreak of the Spanish-American War in April 1898, Commodore George Dewey had on the 28th of the same month defeated the Spanish fleet in the battle of Manila Bay, and occupied on the next day the naval base at nearby Cavite, as well as Corregidor Island, thereafter blockading the bay. To assist Dewey in capturing Manila itself, expeditionary forces of troops were assembled on the west coast of the United States and embarked for the Philippines, the military command of which was given to General Wesley Merritt. Towards the end of May, the first of these bodies comprising 2500 men under Brig. Gen. Thomas M. Anderson on the transports, City of Pekin, City of Sydney, and the Australia sailed from San Francisco for Honolulu, arriving there on June 1. Their escort, the U.S.S. Charleston, which had been overhauled and repaired at Mare Island, had reached there two days earlier. The convoy sailed from Honolulu on June 4 heading westward, and when clear of land Captain Glass opened his confidential orders forwarded to him by the City of Pekin. These instructed him to pause briefly at the island of Guam and after capturing its port, officers, and garrison to proceed to Manila and report to Dewey, by that time a rear admiral. The import of these orders was signalled on the next day to the other ships of the convoy and soon everybody on board them knew of the excitement in store. The voyage was assiduously utilized in drills and exercising at the guns and in target practice. But the capture of Guam as we saw, turned out to be a quiet affair. They were the first reinforcement to reach Dewey and on August 13 participated with other troops and with the fleet in the capture of Manila. A much smaller affair than the conquest of the Philippines, the American seizure of Guam, was the first conquest of territory to be completed outside the continental limits of the United States.



"CHARLESTON," U.S.N.

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CHAPTER II

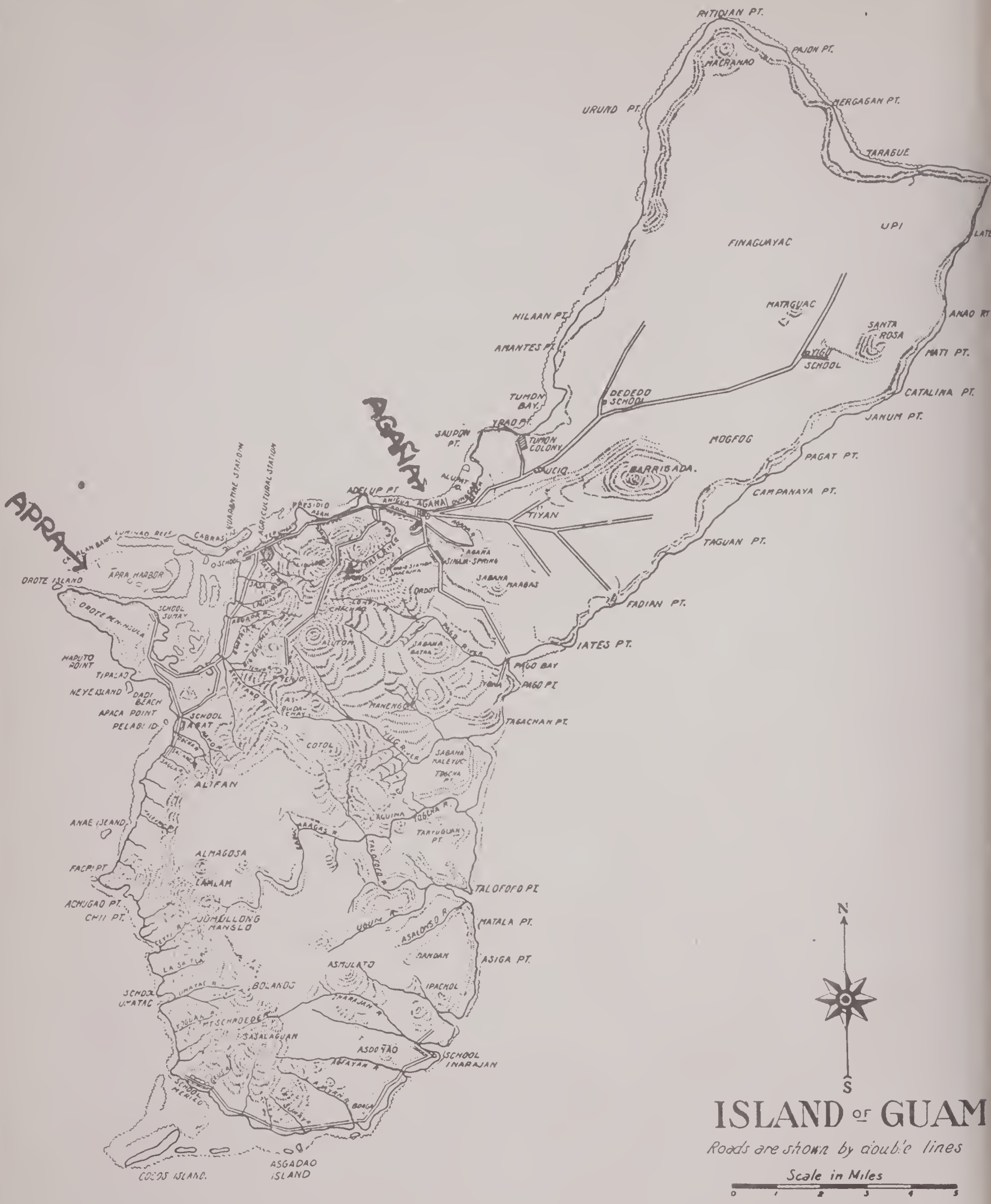
ISLAND OF GUAM

Guam is the most southern of the Mariana[illegible] group of islands of volcanic origin running for 500 miles in a north and south direction 1500 miles east of Luzon in the Philippines, 5053 miles from San Francisco, and 3318 miles from Honolulu. These islands are the peaks of a submarine mountain range rising almost six miles from the bed of the ocean in one of the deepest known parts of the Pacific. To the north 1353 miles is Yokohama, Japan, to the south 300 miles are the Caroline Islands, extending from Palau the far western group, 2000 miles eastward to the Marshall Islands, and including the considerable islands of Ponape, Truk, Kusaie, and Yap, and numerous ports. Jaluit in the Marshalls lies 1573 miles from Guam. North of the Marshalls 300 miles is Wake Island, about half way between the Hawaiian Islands and Guam. Visible on clear days from the northern point of Guam fifty miles distant is the island of Rota, the nearest of the Marianas, of which the other principal islands are Tinian and Saipan, the latter being used as the seat of government for the Marianas, by the Germans and later the Japanese. Together the Marianas, Carolines, Marshalls, and Gilberts are known as Micronesia (sea of small islands) and embrace a total of 1400 islands with a total area of 1000 square miles scattered over a million square miles of ocean.

Guam, the largest island in the northern Pacific between Hawaii and the Philippines and between Japan and New Guinea, is twenty-six miles long, four to eight miles wide, eighty miles around, and has an area of 225 square miles. The northern portion of the island is a tableland, and the southern part is mountainous. The climate is warm or hot and the vegetation luxuriantly tropical. The only change in the weather is from the rainy months of summer to the less rainy ones of winter. The temperature changes little throughout the year, and very equableness of the climate is trying to Americans. The island's only resources were fertile but shallow soil and forests.

At San Luis d'Apra (later renamed Port Apra) on the west coast of Guam is the best natural harbor in this entire area of the Pacific. Several miles across, this harbor is protected on the south by Orote Peninsula, on the east by the island of Guam itself, and on the north by Cabras Island (also called Apapa Island and Goat Island), and Luminan Reef and Calalan Bank extending southwest from this island towards Orote Point terminating at Spanish Rocks between which and that point lies a deep channel several hundred yards wide forming the entrance to the harbor. Yet it is not a good harbor, for the exposure to the west permits strong ocean swells to enter, and it was and still is (1938) encumbered with banks and coral reefs, particularly in its eastern and southeastern parts, necessitating ships to anchor in the western portion of the harbor. At the time of the American occupation two landing places were in use, one on Orote Pensinsula at Sumay (also spelled Soumaye and Sumai), which was used by commercial vessels and in years past by whalers, and one at Piti located in the northeastern part of the harbor opposite the eastern end of Cabras Island, which was used for discharging government supplies and cargoes for Agana. From the anchorage farther out in the harbor boat channels led through dangerous reefs, which were difficult to navigate in low water to Sumay and Piti. At the latter place were the port office and another stone building used as an office by the governor when he had business at the landing.

Agana, the capital and principal town of Guam, is on the coast five miles north of Piti with which it is connected by a road running most of the way along the beach. The public buildings were all located on the plaza, as in Spanish colonial capitals in North and South America. Of these the principall ones was the governor's Palace or Government House, a two story structure of coral masonry located on the south side of the plaza, with walls three feet thick and protected on all sides from the sun by enclosed verandas. On the same side of the plaza were the government storehouses, and on the opposite side were the tribunal, in the basement of which was the calabozo, and several private dwellings. The Catholic Church was located on the east side and the treasury and barracks on the west. Some of the private homes in the town were substantially constructed of coral rock and lime (mamposteria) or wood, but others were flimsy shacks on posts with thatched roofs.



2940—26. (Face p. I.)

The 9,500 or so inhabitants of Guam, of which the largest portion lived in Agana, consisted principally of the native Chamorros, a Malay stock with a considerable injection of Spanish, Filipino and Mexican blood because of the miscegenation of the women with the officials and soldiers from outside. Through the visits of whalers from the United States some American blood had also been introduced. The word Chamorro comes from Chamorri or Chamoli, the ancient name for chief. These people soon gained among the Americans a reputation characterized as kindly, peaceable, generous, and hospitable. They were religious, and they liked the parades and ceremonies accompanying the practice of the Catholic religion as it had been adapted to accomplish their conversion. They were not overly industrious because there was no reward for industry. Among the population in 1899 was a colony of Kanakas from the Caroline Islands who formed the most disreputable group on the island. The island's aristocracy were the descendants of the Spanish officials who had remained there. The foreigners included in January 1899, a few Filipino convicts, two Japanese storekeepers, one Chinaman, one East Indian, four Spanish priests of the Augustine Recollets, a few Spanish civil employees, and one Spanish merchant. The principal industry of the island was the exportation of copra, the dried meat of the coconut.

Although the Ma anas were discovered in 1521 by Magellan on his voyage around the world and named by him the adrones, or Islands of the Thieves, because of what he considered the thieving propensities of the inhabitants, possession was not taken of the islands by Spain until 1565, the year of the founding of St. Augustine in Florida, and their colonization did not begin until a century later. A Jesuit missionary arrived in 1668 to undertake the Christianization of the natives, a process which eventually resulted in their conquest by military force. When Queen Maria Ana of Austria, the widow of Philip IV of Spain, made a donation for founding a college to aid in the conversion of the natives of the new possession in 1668, the name Marianas was given the group of islands in her honor. These islands have also been called the Pirate Islands because of serving as a base for freebooters. Upon the expulsion of the Jesuits in 1769, their place was taken by the order of Augustine Recollets, who remained on Guam until the American occupation. Because of the opprobrium attached to the word Ladrone, which was resented by the inhabitants, both Governors Leary and Schroeder recommended that use of the designation be avoided, the latter proposing instead "Island of Guam". A further difficulty about using "Guam, L.I." on mail was that the L.I. was sometimes mistaken for P.I. and the mail sent to the Philippine Islands.

From 1676 the Marianas were administered by a royally appointed governor, who possessed absolute authority in civil, military, and judicial matters. He was subordinate to the vicerory of New Spain until Mexico became independent of Spain and the galleons discontinued their annual voyages from Acapulco to the Philippines via Guam. After Spain had no further use for Guam as a way station for the galleons, the Marianas were nothing but a liability and no benefit was derived by the crown from the annual subsidy provided for the government of the Marianas. From this time (1815) until the islands were lost to Spain, their governor, whose capital was at Agana, was subordinate to the governor general of the Philippines.

At the close of Spanish dominion, the officials of the Spanish government of the Marianas included, besides the governor, a secretary or aide, treasurer, chief of public works, judge of the court of first instance, health officer, captain of the port, promoter fiscal (attorney), and registrar of lands. Next to the governor in rank was the sargento mayor, who was the commandant of the troops and who substituted at times for the governor.

Local affairs were in the hands of officials who functioned as representatives of the governor. Guam was divided into municipalities under the charge of gobernadorcillos (little governors), who managed municipal matters and executed public works under the direction of the governor. Other municipal officers included the justice of the peace (teniente de justicia), two judges, two assistant judges, and a constable (alguacil). The municipalities were composed of villages (pueblos) headed by principales del pueblo, and the villages were further broken down into local groups of fifty families called barangays. These were under a cabeza de barangay who, assisted by the suplente, were concerned with the census, taxes, and public labor. The cabezas were selected for life by the governor from candidates proposed by the gobernadorcillos, who

approved the suplentes proposed by the cabezas. A small native police force (Artilleria Insular) guarded the calabozo and kept order on the island.

The neighboring island groups were all in the hands of European nations, which had hitherto been occupied in a struggle for colonies in more important areas of the world, by the end of the nineteenth century. Germany annexed the Marshall Islands in 1885, Spain the Caroline Islands in 1875, and Great Britain the Gilbert Islands in 1892. All of these countries and France and the Netherlands possessed various other islands in the western Pacific. A more vigorous policy was adopted by Germany in Micronesia in government, industry, and commerce.

At Jaluit in the Marshalls the development of a German naval base was undertaken. The island of Saipan, 120 miles north of Guam, became the seat of the German government.



View of Apra Harbor



Fort Santa Cruz, Apra Harbor

CHAPTER III

INTERREGNUM

From the time of the departure of the Charleston in June 1898 until August 1899, a period covered in part by the war and the armistice with Spain, there were no regularly constituted authorities, the island being left largely to its own resources, particularly in the first half of this period. Captain Glass of the Charleston inquired of the Spanish officers and of Frank Portusach concerning Guam's government, resources, and other features. He apparently concluded that, after removing all of the Spanish officers and soldiers, it would not be necessary to leave any officers and men on the island. Portusach says that he was asked by the captain to take care of American interests until the arrival of officers, a statement which is confirmed by the correspondent Douglas White who was attached to the convoy accompanying the Charleston. Though the captain could not have spared much of a force, it was a mistake not to have left some representatives of the United States on Guam, especially in view of the rivalry among European nations for the annexation of the islands in the area. Portusach may have been given some sort of charge by Captain Glass, but he was not designated as acting governor, nor apparently was anybody else.

The operations of the U. S. Navy in the Philippines, culminating in the battle of Manila on August 13, 1898, necessitated naval reenforcements being sent to that station; some of the vessels so despatched visited Guam en route. When the monitor Monterey and the collier Brutus stopped there on July 23, a native boat came alongside with the information that everything was quiet and that the Charleston had carried away the governor and troops to Manila. The Monterey was coaled by the Brutus in the port, and vegetables and fruit were obtained from the shore. The Civil War ironclad Monadnock and the collier Nero arrived on August 3. A coaling operation was again completed with the use of fenders to keep the ships from battering each other because of the motion caused by the swell of the ocean entering the harbor from the west. Not long before the departure of these ships on the 6th, the German corvette Arcona entered the harbor, and, while the American vessels were passing out, officers of the Monadnock and the Arcona exchanged visits. In the same month, according to Portusach, the mail steamer Saturnos, which had been chartered by the Spanish from the McCloud Company to make periodic visits here, came on its last trip, taking away the wives and families of some of the Spanish officers. The S.S. Uranus came on a similar errand in December from the Philippines, having on board the former captain of the port, Gutierrez, who came to take away his family and that of the governor.

Hostilities with Spain ceased pursuant to the terms of a protocal of August 12, 1898, which provided in its terms that an island in the Ladrones was to be ceded to the United States. According to this agreement commissioners met at Paris, and a treaty was signed on December 10, 1898, ceding the Philippines and the island of Guam to the United States. The treaty further provided that stands of colors, uncaptured vessels, arms, equipment and supplies were to remain the property of Spain, but that public buildings, land, and other immovable property, and archives and records, executive as well as judicial, relating to the said island or the rights and property of their inhabitants were to be transferred to the United States. The decision to retain the Philippines for the development of economic enterprise there and commercial relations with China made it desirable to have Guam for use as a coaling station, cable station, and naval base. From San Francisco to Manila via Honolulu and Guam was about 7000 miles, a much longer distance than steamers could go without recoaling. The naval vessels of that day had steaming radii of from 2000 to 5000 miles, with only a few having a greater radius than 4000 miles. Most of them could steam for only 1000 to 2000 miles and return without recoaling, hence the importance of Guam as a way station on the route to the Philippines and as an outpost of Hawaii in time of war. The acquisition by the United States of the Hawaiian Islands and Guam in 1898 and Wake in 1899 gave it a line of communication across the northern Pacific, which was of immense strategic potentialities.

We took the Philippines and Guam, but the rest of the Marianas and the other Spanish possessions in the area went to Germany. Seeking to profit from the situation in the Pacific resulting from the defeat of Spain, Germany endeavored to arrange a division of the Spanish possessions with the United States, but the latter country declined and went ahead with negotiations with Spain. Rebuffed on one side, Germany turned to the other and on September 10, 1898 made a secret

agreement with Spain, dependent upon the outcome of the war with the United States, for the purchase of the islands of Kusaie, Ponape, and Yap in the Carolines. During the negotiations with Spain, the United States expressed a desire to acquire Kusaie for use as a cable station, but Germany protested, and the matter was not pushed. After the conclusion of the treaty between the United States and Spain, Germany signed treaties with the latter country by which she bought the Carolines, the Pelews (Palau), and the Marianas, except for Guam. Thus American Guam became surrounded by German islands. It must have been realized by the United States Government that the remaining possessions of Spain would not long continue in her hands, yet the opportunity presented by the treaty was allowed to pass. Edward Van D. Robinson, writing in the Independent of October 13, 1898, pointed out the strategic value of the Spanish islands and the certainty of their getting into stronger hands than those of Spain. In the words of this writer: "Guam is either too much or too little." However, because of the distance of these islands from Germany, they were of limited strategic value to her.

The new German possessions contained ports, particularly in the Carolines, suitable for naval bases which were within reach of Guam. Realizing the threat they presented, Captain Leary, while at Colombo, Ceylon en route to Guam, wrote the Secretary of the Navy of the rumor that Germany had acquired the Ladrone and Caroline Islands and recommended that immediate steps be taken to erect fortifications and shore batteries on Guam. To accomplish this, he suggested that naval vessels leaving the Asiatic Station for the United States be directed to stop at Guam to deliver as many of their rapid fire guns as the department might think advisable for mounting on shore. The Navy Department, however, approved the Bureau of Navigation's opinion that nothing should be done until information had been supplied as to the necessity for fortifying Guam and until a complete report on the matter had been obtained from the governor.

Preparations for the naval occupation of Guam were undertaken by the Navy Department even before the signing of the treaty with Spain. Orders dated December 9, 1898 were sent to the U.S. gunboat Bennington to proceed from the Hawaiian Islands, where it had been attached to the Pacific Station, to Guam in order to make a survey of the harbor. Accompanying these orders were instructions from Charles H. Allen, the Assistant Secretary of the Navy, dated December 14, directing that a hydrographic survey of the harbor and the bordering lands be made and that a site be selected for a coaling and watering station; possession was to be taken for the use of the Navy of all public land bordering on the harbor; in case the land selected for the coaling station was not part of the public land, a suitable site was to be purchased; the report on the survey was to be accompanied by charts, contour maps, and records necessary for the publication of a complete chart of the harbor and such other information as would enable the department to prepare specifications for the erection of public works. Rear Admiral Arent S. Crowninshield, Chief of the Bureau of Navigation, a position then concerned with the operations of the Navy, recommended on December 12 that the department obtain an order from the President making the island of Guam a naval station and placing it under the control of the Navy and that an expedition be fitted out to establish the station, the commandant of which should have control of the island. The result was the issuance by President McKinley on December 23 of executive order no. 108-A, placing the protection and government of Guam under the Navy Department. Although ratification of the treaty with Spain was still several weeks distant, United States sovereignty was thus extended over Guam as it had been over the Philippines two days previously.

The collier Brutus, which had been ordered to Guam in order to coal the Bennington, reached there on January 1, 1899, after a voyage of twelve days from Manila, having been slowed down by poor firemen and broken-down machinery. On the day of its arrival, the commanding officer, Lt. Vincendon L. Cottman, sent Ensign Williamson Dunn ashore to Agana with a member of the crew as interpreter to ascertain the state of affairs and whether there was an authorized person in charge of the island to whom a bag of mail could be delivered. Among natives of Piti, Sumay, and Agana who visited the ship that day were Frank Portusach and Padre Palomo, who informed the lieutenant that José Sisto had assumed charge of the government of the island after the departure of the Charleston, but that they, as representatives of a faction opposed to his continuance in authority, had given him notice that he must quit that very day. The immediate cause for this development appears to have been a riot between Chamorros and Filipinos which had recently occurred at a cock fight; the Filipinos had drawn knives and begun stabbing when Portusach quelled them by brandishing a revolver. It had also been learned that Sisto had divided the funds

in the treasury among himself and other government employees. Altogether it seems to have been high time for the appearance of an American officer. On the succeeding day Sisto came on board the ship with Surgeon Romero, who had returned to the island on the Pennsylvania and had been unable to leave on the Uranus, and the captain of the company of native soldiers. Sisto stated that as the chief civil official (treasurer) remaining after the departure of the military officers he had assumed charge, but that he was ready to turn over the control of affairs to the commanding officer of the Brutus. Portusach and Palomo were also aboard again, and, after hearing the stories of both sides in private, the lieutenant brought them together and asked if they had anything further to say. They did not. Lieutenant Cottman then announced that he could not take charge until he had received instructions from home that peace had been concluded with Spain and until that time he recommended that Sisto continue in charge in order to preserve order, but that if any complications arose he wanted to be notified. So Don José was allowed to go on as administrator or acting governor.

While waiting for the arrival of the Bennington, the officers of the Brutus gathered information concerning affairs on the island, and its crews scraped and painted ship. Lieutenant Cottman went to Agana on January 3 to return the visit of the administrator and to inspect the government buildings, which he found barren and dilapidated. With the officers of the ship he also visited the whole portion of the island in the neighborhood of the bay of San Luis d'Apra and received visits in return from the local officials. He was able to report at the end of the month to the commanding officer of the Bennington that everything had been quiet.

The Bennington sailed from Honolulu on January 7, 1899, stopping at uninhabited Wake Island on the 17th to take possession of it by raising a flag staff and nailing thereto an American flag, and stood into the port of San Luis d'Apra on the 23rd. The commanding officer, Comdr. Edward D. Taussig, received an official visit from Jose Sisto and Dr. Romero on the next day. The survey of the harbor was immediately begun, a number of working parties being formed to operate from the ship as a base where Lt. Charles B. T. Moore, the executive officer, was made ship keeper with the responsibility for all watches and the proper equipment and punctual dispatch of the parties. The coaling of the Bennington was also undertaken. Together with Lieutenant Cottman who undoubtedly acquainted him with the situation on the island, Commander Taussig and others from his ship paid a visit on the 25th to Agana, calling on Sisto and inspecting the government buildings. A report presenting information concerning the buildings at Agana with plans of the Palace and indications of how its rooms might be used was prepared by Passed Assistant Surgeon Brownlee R. Ward.

Unlike the other naval officers.who had visited the island, Taussig went beyond his orders and concerned himself with the administration of its affairs. On January 28 he issued order no. 1:

1. All laws and regulations of the former Government will remain in force until otherwise directed.
2. Passed Assistant Paymaster Barron P. DuBois, U.S. Navy, to collect and disburse all revenues of the island from and after February 1st., 1899.
3. The inhabitants are informed that subjects of Spain may elect to remain on the island as subjects of Spain and that they will receive the protection of the United States Government ment while conducting themselves in an orderly and law abiding manner.
4. All inhabitants electing to remain subjects of Spain are directed to make their declaration to the Local of their district. All officials and employees of the island government will be continued until further notice.

In accordance with the foregoing order, Commander Taussig directed Sisto on the same day to turn over to Passed Assistant Paymaster Barron P. DuBois all books, memoranda, records and moneys relating to the collection and disbursement of the revenues of the island of Guam. All public lands recently the property of the Spanish government bordering on the harbor of San Luis d'Apra were taken over for the United States Navy Department in order no. 2, dated January 30, 1899. On the morning of February 1 the battalion of marines and a volunteer band were landed from the Bennington, marched from Piti to Agana, where they participated with the native artillery company (insular police) in ceremonies on the plaza attending the raising of the American flag. At the same time a flag was also raised at Fort Santa Cruz, a salute being fired on board

the Bennington. Taussig and Cottman preceded the men to Agana and were met by a delegation of the principal citizens who appeared pleased to be placed once more under the American flag. According to Father Resano, however, many of the Chamorros were sad at the transfer of ownership, while the Americans, he admitted, were restrained in the manner in which they carried through the exercise.

The Brutus departed for Honolulu and San Francisco on February 1 with communications from Taussig to the Secretary of the Navy. He declared his intention, upon completing his assigned duty there, to place one of the inhabitants in charge of the island. If the government intended to send out officials, he recommended a governor, a tax collector, a registrar of land titles, and a medical officer. As the people were well disposed towards the United States, he believed that a lieutenant's guard would be a sufficient garrison, but it might be well to have a larger force until the government was well settled. He recommended that $3,000 be allowed for the repair of the Palace and other expenses and that furniture be provided for the buildings from which the furniture had been removed ostensibly as private property of the Spanish officials. Wire screening, household effects, toilet articles, a small vehicle and two horses, two or three cows, and plenty of vegetable seeds should be brought.

During his brief management of the finances of Guam, Paymaster DuBois gathered much information concerning these and the administration of the island. In examining the accounts of the treasury turned over to him by Sisto he discovered that he had paid himself eighteen months' advance pay and to the other employees of the office a year's advance pay. Immediate steps were taken to recover this money; the interventor and four clerks returned all they had been given, except for a small sum, but Sisto returned nothing. The sums of money received by DuBois were as follows: from Sisto for the general treasury $966.57, as repayments from the treasury employees $1881.00; from exemptions from labor $136.00, from taxes upon Chinese (2) $19.76. After spending $30 for transportation and $4 for lighting the barracks, he turned over to Vincente Herrero, his successor, $2969.33. Funds of the local treasury amounting to $10.15 were also transferred to Herrero. The matter of the refund from Sisto was left unsettled.

As to the method of collecting and disbursing the revenues, he found that the local funds were derived from a poll tax of $1.50 per year upon each male between the ages of 18 and 60, and by taxes upon slaughtering cattle, branding live stock, and cock fights. The poll tax was collected by the Locals of the different districts, while the other taxes were collected by tax gatherers. Funds for the general treasury were obtained from taxes upon real estate, industries, and from exemptions from forced labor. The tax upon real estate amounted to five percent of the annual net revenue of the property and was collected quarterly. The tax for exemption from forced labor was payable in advance. The revenues produced $600 a month while the expenses amounted to $725.

The money in the Guam treasury consisted of Chilean, other South American, Mexican and Philippine coin. The South American coins, which were considerably worn and therefore greatly depreciated, were being imported by every trading vessel while the Mexican and Spanish money was being exported by the merchants to meet bills of exchange; the bad money was driving out the good. DuBois recommended and Taussig issued a proclamation declaring that taxes should be paid in Mexican or Spanish money and that South American money would be accepted only at certain discounts. American money was to be accepted at twice the value of the Mexican. A later order prohibited the importation of mutilated or depreciated money. But this was only the beginning of troubles with the money of Guam.

Data concerning the organization of the Spanish government of the island was also reported by Paymaster DuBois. The artillery company was found to consist of the following: 1 lieutenant, 1 sergeant, 1 bugler, 1 guarda parque, 1 armorer, 8 corporals, and 45 privates, all of whom were maintained at a monthly cost of $336.77. The treasury employes were 1 chief clerk, 1 clerk, 3 clerks. The employees of other government offices were the assessor, vaccinator, alcalde, clerk of the court, clerk, doctor, school teacher, gobernadorcillo, clerk of the local funds, and an interpreter.

In compliance with orders from the Navy Department brought on the U.S.S. Yorktown, which

arrived on February 13 with three bags of mail, the Bennington was unexpectedly detached from duty at Guam and departed with the former vessel for Manila on the 15th. Dr. Romero and his family were given transportation on board the Bennington. The services of this ship were thereafter employed throughout the Philippines in operations against the insurrectionists.

Upon the Bennington's departure the affairs of the island were placed in the hands of Joaquin Perez by appointment of Commander Taussig, who left no naval officer there to represent the United States. Shortly before, the commander had directed Vincente Perez to continue as secretary, a position which this man held for many years. Presumably, other officials also retained their positions according to the order of Taussig already referred to. Since there was no American officer at the island for several weeks after the sailing of the Bennington, there is a hiatus in the records for this period. The U.S.S. Oregon and the U.S.S. Iris stopped at San Luis d'Apra on March 10-11, long enough for 586 tons of coal to be transferred to the battleship. The islanders showed their interest in their American connection by visiting the Oregon, the log of which states that the mayor, administrator, assessor, pilot, harbor master, and several businessmen from Agana came on board.

Upon the arrival of the Brutus at San Francisco on March 7, 1899, Lieutenant Cottman transmitted to the Secretary of the Navy a report, dated February 20, prepared at the request of Commander Taussig. This embodied much descriptive information, concerning the island and social, economic, and governmental conditions as well as observations and recommendations based upon the information collected by Cottman and the other officers of the Brutus during their stay at Guam. Lieutenant Cottman recommended as follows:

> If the Government intends to make Guam a self supporting island and a creditable colony it will be necessary to commence immediately and use heroic measures. The following are suggested as some of the necessary means to this end. (1) First of all send the Spanish priests to Spain or to one of the Spanish Islands and the native priest to one of the other islands, I believe he claims some of them. These priests are the moral lepers of the place and are a great draw back and detriment; they have considerable political influence. As the people are all Roman Catholics send here four American priests, judiciously selected for their suitability. Priests similar to the Catholic Chaplains in the Navy would be suitable.
> (2) Having gotten rid of the moral lepers send four government doctors whose first duty will be to examine all the natives in the Island and corral all the lepers and send them out of the island, the leper settlement at Molokai (Hawaii) is suggested as rendezvous. There are about six lepers now in the island. Next let the doctors establish a hospital with sufficient surrounding ground for a ranch and collect all the syphilitics in the island and start a colony that will be self supporting, say at Merizo. If any of the cases can be cured by treatment let such be released from this settlement when cured. Let the doctors look into the sanitary requirements. All the towns need sewers.
> (3) Establish a government pharmacy and have compulsory examination of all natives and for the present free treatment.
> (4) Send all the Filipino convicts back to Manila.
> (5) Compel all males above 18 to do a days work six days in the week, until they become accustomed to work; this will prevent their laying around the homes idle and drinking La Tuba. Make them build a good carriage road all around the island.
> (6) Establish Public Schools and compel all children to go to school and teach them English, having male teachers for the boys and women teachers for the girls.
> (7) Establish an Industrial School.
> (8) Make American the business as well as the official language.
> (9) Establish a government experimental agricultural station and stock farm in one, send out all kinds of vegetable seed, grain seed, fruit seed and grazing grass seed that is suitable for the tropics; have a fair amount to distribute free under supervision of the Agriculturist of the Experimental Station. Send out half a dozen good milk cows and a bull or two, Texas horses, ducks, partridges and quail, also agricultural implements and some axes and saws.

The importation of a small portable sawmill and planer was suggested as boards were then

sawed by hand. The naval station should have flat bottomed boats of very shallow draft in order to navigate the inside of the harbor at low tide. An equitable code of laws for direct taxation, etc. should be formulated and substituted for the old Spanish laws. He continued:

> The natives in short should be given the benefit of an enlightened civilization, made to understand that their religion was not compulsory but a matter of their own choice, text books of a purely religious nature and tending to cloud their minds in ignorance and religious fear while failing to teach them morals should be abolished, and prohibited in the schools and text books substituted which teach as far as applicable to a primitive people the arts and sciences which would be beneficial and instructive to them and enable them to raise better crops, build better homes or boats, or raise more stock, in short, giving them instruction how they may better their condition in life and improving their morals. The natives show considerable talent and adaptability in the arts and with proper instruction and implements would no doubt prove adept pupils.

In examining the shore of the bay of San Luis d'Apra to determine where he might discharge the coal on the Brutus, should orders be received to that effect, he found no suitable place -- none that could be used without great labor because of various natural difficulties. The south side of Cabras Island was hard to get at, but he preferred this to the port of Sumay on Orote Peninsula because it was more protected from the ocean, especially from heavy ocean swells which rolled right up to Sumay. Unless it was decided to undergo the considerable expense of establishing a coal depot on shore, he proposed mooring a coal hulk near the western end of Cabras Island where vessels could go alongside it, or stationing it elsewhere in the harbor. In concluding his report he indicated that officials or missionaries going to the island would have to take not only the luxuries but also the necessities of life with them, for practically nothing, not even a reliable food supply, was available. The department acknowledged receipt of Cottman's report on March 14, stating that it was the first reliable information received concerning the island and that it had been useful in fitting out the Yosemite for the station ship at Guam.

In April the department received from Commander Taussig a report of February 17 upon the administration of the island of Guam, which has not been located in the department's files. In acknowledging the receipt of the report, Secretary of the Navy John D. Long expressed approval of the commander's actions in regard to affairs on Guam.

Naval surveillance of affairs on Guam began anew on March 24, 1899 when Lt. Louis A. Kaiser arrived on the Nanshan, a Scottish built collier, purchased at Hong Kong by Admiral Dewey in April 1898 for use in his campaign against the Philippines. Lieutenant Kaiser seems to have been the only member of the U.S. Navy on board this vessel, which had a civilian, E. H. Stovell, as captain and a Chinese crew. The practice of having merchant crews on the colliers was one which the Navy Department was forced soon to make general because of the dislike shown by regular Navy personnel for this service. While stationed at Guam, the Nanshan coaled on April 7-8 the U.S.S. Wheeling and on July 26-29 the U.S.S. Solace.

Governmental affairs on the island were allowed to continue as they had been since the departure of the Bennington. On the arrival of the Nanshan, the native officials promptly reported on board and were received by Lieutenant Kaiser, who records them as follows: Vicente Herrero, administrator has custody of the funds; Joaquin Perez, mayor or captain of the town, acting governor; Juan Torres, second paymaster; Vincente Perez, assessor; Francisco Napal, Doctor; and Henry Melanchamp, general utility man. During this period there was also in existence a junta appointed by Commander Taussig and composed of the acting governor, Padre Palomo, Juan Torres y Diaz, Vincente Herrero y Roberto, Luis Torres y Diaz, and Antonio Martinez, who were the most prominent men on the island. The function of this body appears to have been to oversee matters and act in case of necessity, but Joaquin Perez had no difficulties of particular moment until after the arrival of Lieutenant Kaiser.

Immediately after his arrival, Lieutenant Kaiser began acquainting himself with affairs in which he was eventually forced to take an active part. Out of curiosity he visited on the 24th the American whaler, the Andrew Hicks of San Francisco, which had been in the harbor for some time. Ships arriving subsequently were boarded by him and also by the acting governor, both

visited the Solace on different days, the latter being received with the "honors befitting his position." At Agana on March 26 and 27 he inspected the public buildings and took steps to improve their sanitation, particularly that of the cuartel. He took meteorological data and on May 13 forwarded an abstract of his observations to the Manila observatory. Part of his time was spent at Agana where he hired a house on the shore. Here the native customs came under his observation, and on May 21 he ordered that the native soldiers were not to participate in the religious celebrations. While not more seriously engaged, he went hunting pigeons, deer, or goats and sometimes succeeded in shooting them.

José Sisto, the former administrator, was under arrest at the time of Kaiser's arrival because of his misuse of the public funds. Through the acting governor, Sisto requested permission to leave the island on May 21 as he had deposited 1875 Chilean dollars as a repayment, but the lieutenant insisted that he must pay in the more valuable Mexican dollars. After Sisto had complied with this requirement, Kaiser then asked for an explanation of the sales of government property which he had made according to charges by Portusach. Palomo and Perez were able to explain this new matter satisfactorily and Sisto was allowed at last to depart.

Among three classes of Filipinos on the island -- those who came to earn an honest living, ex-convicts who had served their time, and exiled insurrectionists against the Spanish government in the Philippines -- was a turbulent element, particularly in the last group, who, the residents of Guam thought, should be deported. Some of the Filipinos began acting suspiciously, and it was feared that they were planning to obtain revenge upon Chamorros for the death of a Filipino which had occurred at Sumay in the preceding December. The matter was brought to the attention of Lieutenant Kaiser at his house in Agana by Perez on the last day of March and on the next day he attended a meeting of prominent citizens held in the Palace to discuss the situation. An order prepared at the meeting and issued by the lieutenant on April 2, forbade persons without passes to be on the streets from 9 P.M. to 5 A.M, and required every one to declare the firearms in their possession inside of twenty days under penalty of fines and the confiscation of the weapons. The situation was brought under complete control, but the Filipinos remained a canker in the community.

When Col. Eugenio Blanco, the Spanish governor of the Marianas, arrived in port on May 9 on the S.S. Elcano, which was frightfully crowded with refugees from the Philippines and troops bound for Saipan, Lieutenant Kaiser was presented with a problem of a diplomatic character. The governor requested that there be turned over to him the arms, munitions, and medical supplies which had been in the custody of the former Spanish officers, according to the terms of the treaty of peace. Because he had no copy of the treaty, Kaiser declined to surrender the material, but he agreed to the departure of the Filipinos deported to the island by the Spanish government. Ratifications of the treaty were not exchanged at Washington until April 11, 1899, so there had been no opportunity for the Navy Department to convey intelligence of this to Kaiser, who, in fact, seems to have had no correspondence with the department. A Spaniard described as the acting Spanish governor came to San Luis d'Apra on the S.S. Esmeralda on June 16 with a letter from General Elwell S. Otis, the American general in command in the Philippines, suggesting that the arms be delivered to the Spanish governor of the Marianas. Since General Otis did not have jurisdiction over Guam, Kaiser was in doubt as to the propriety of fulfilling his request; he consulted Comdr. Charles Belknap of the U.S.S. Nero upon its arrival on July, and was told to pay no attention to it. After the return of the Esmeralda from a trip to Yap, acting governor Perez turned over to the Spanish officer, who represented the governor of Saipan, the keys to the arsenal, but Kaiser, learning of this, gave Perez written orders to the effect that the governor of Saipan could not have the arms, and when Perez protested, Kaiser communicated directly with the Spaniard and secured the return of the keys.

The difficulty over the arms led to a difference between Kaiser and Joaquin Perez. The latter called a meeting of the Junta on July 11; this advisory council seemed to think that Perez was in supreme control, but Kaiser insisted that the senior officer present (himself) was in charge. Perez thereupon suggested that he act as governor, but the lieutenant demurred on the ground that Perez had better continue on account of internal affairs. Kaiser was not familar with Spanish. Going up to the capital next day, Kaiser found ordnance stuff being loaded into carts. He communicated with Perez who informed him that he was sick, so he called together the council which

adhered its former opinion but said that he might assume control. Deciding to remove Perez, Kaiser placed in his stead a half-caste Samoan named William Coe, said by Kaiser to be an American subject, who had arrived on the island since its capture by the Charleston. The difficulty concerning the arms was finally solved by Kaiser's securing from the Spanish officer a signed statement to the effect that any articles which might not come under the treaty would be returned.

An attempt was made towards the end of July to establish a legislature, presumably as a step towards setting up a civil government by the islanders themselves. Lieutenant Kaiser discouraged this, however, by declaring to an American named Rumberg, who was involved in the movement, that no changes in the laws would be tolerated.

Matters on Guam were evidently approaching a state in which the lieutenant would have been forced to take complete charge whether he wanted to or not. His attempt to manage things through acting governors whose authority he infringed upon whenever he chose was not proving successful. A governor of Guam later described these interregnum conditions as "chaos." This troubled period of American rule in Guam came to an end in early August when the U.S.S. Yosemite arrived, bearing on board the first governor of Guam, Capt. Richard P. Leary, U.S.N. A month later, after transferring its coal to the Brutus and the Yosemite, the Nanshan weighed anchor and steamed to Manila.

CHAPTER IV

ADMINISTRATION OF GOVERNOR LEARY

By President McKinley's direction of December 23, 1898, the government of the island of Guam was placed under the United States Navy Department. This department, which had already been making plans in regard to the island, appointed Captain Richard Phillips Leary governor of Guam on January 12, 1899, and instructed him to assume control of all crown lands, fortifications, and public buildings together with such archives as might be found. A separate set of "Instructions for the Military Commander of the Island of Guam, Ladrones, Pacific Ocean" of the same date and signed by President McKinley and Secretary of the Navy John D. Long, read as follows:

> With the signature of the treaty of peace between the United States and Spain by their respective Plenipotentiaries at Paris, on the 10th of December, 1898, and as the result of the victories of American arms, the future control, disposition and government of the Island of Guam are ceded to the United States. In fulfillment of the rights of sovereignty thus acquired and the responsible obligations of government thus assumed, the actual occupation and administration of the Island of Guam becomes immediately necessary.
>
> In performing this duty, the military commander of the United States is enjoined to make known to its inhabitants of the Island of Guam, that, in succeeding to the sovereignty of Spain, in severing the former political relations of the inhabitants and in establishing a new political power, the authority of the United States is to be exerted for the security of the persons and property of the people of the Island and for the confirmation of all their private rights and relations. It will be the duty of the military commander to announce and proclaim in the most public manner that we come, not as invaders or conquerors, but as friends, to protect the natives in their homes, in their employments and in their personal and religious rights. All persons who, either by active aid or by honest submission, cooperate with the government of the United States to give effect to these beneficent purposes, will receive the reward of its support and protection. All others will be brought within the lawful rule we have assumed, with firmness if need be, but without severity as far as it may be possible.
>
> Within the absolute domain of naval authority, which necessarily is and must remain supreme in the ceded territory until the legislation of the United States shall otherwise provide, the municipal laws of the territory, in respect to private rights and property and the repression of crime are to be considered as continuing in force, and to be administered by the ordinary tribunals so far as practicable. The operations of civil and municipal government are to be performed by such officers as may accept the supremacy of the United States by taking the oath of allegiance, or by officers chosen as far as may be practicable from the inhabitants of the Island.
>
> While the control of all the public property and the revenues of the state passes with the cession, and while the use and management of all public means of transportation are necessarily reserved to the authority of the United States, private property, whether belonging to individuals or corporations, is to be respected except for causes duly established. The taxes and duties heretofore payable by the inhabitants to the late governor, become payable to the authorities of the United States unless it be seen fit to substitute for them other reasonable rates or modes of contribution to the expenses of government, whether general or local. If private property be taken for military use, it shall be paid for when possible in cash at a fair valuation, and when payment in cash is not practicable, receipts are to be given.
>
> All ports and places in the Island of Guam in the actual possession of the naval forces of the United States will be opened to the commerce of all friendly nations. All goods and wares, not prohibited for military reasons by due announcement of the naval authority, will be admitted upon payment of such duties and other charges as shall be in force at the time of their importation.



CAPTAIN RICHARD P. LEARY, UNITED STATES NAVY,
GOVERNOR OF GUAM.

> Finally, it should be the earnest and paramount aim of the naval administration to win the confidence, respect and affection of the inhabitants of the Island of Guam by assuring to them in every possible way that full measure of individual rights and liberties which is the heritage of free peoples, and by proving to them that the mission of the United States is one of benevolent assimilation, substituting the mild sway of justice and right for arbitrary rule. In the fulfillment of this high mission, supporting the temperate administration of affairs for the greatest good of the governed, there must be sedulously maintained the strong arm of authority, to repress disturbance and to overcome all obstacles to the bestowal of the blessings of good and stable government upon the people of the Island of Guam under the free flag of the United States.

Captain Leary, the officer selected for the new and important post, was a native of Baltimore in his late fifties, who after finishing at the Naval Academy had seen active service during the Civil War and had served in numerous ships and stations during the intervening years. In the Spanish-American War he had commanded the U.S.S. San Francisco in Cuban waters, and when this vessel was decommissioned in the fall of 1898 he had been made inspector of equipment at the Boston Navy Yard. His selection as governor of Guam may have resulted from the experience he had had in Apia, Samoa during the last six months of 1888. At that time, as commanding officer of the U.S.S. Adams on the Pacific Station, he had played an aggressive role in protecting American interests during a native rebellion, which also involved British and German interests. Other considerations that might have influenced his choice have eluded research, but knowledge of the Spanish language was not one, for he was not familiar with it.

The political status of Guam has always been peculiar since its acquisition by the United States. The only administrative authority has been that derived from the President as commander-in-chief of the Army and Navy of the United States. Neither the Constitution nor the laws of the United States have been extended to the island by Congress. The Attorney General held in 1904 that there could be no question as to the regularity of the appointment of a naval officer as the governor by the Secretary of the Navy since the island had been placed under his charge by the President. Even as unincorporated territory, however, Guam, according to the famous "Insular Cases" decided by the Supreme Court in the years following 1900, possesses certain "fundamental" rights provided by the Constitution, which are extended through Guam's becoming United States territory. In its decisions the Supreme Court has determined that inhabitants of the possessions do not have American citizenship until Congress confers it by legislation, nor do they have the right to indictment by grand jury and trial by jury until Congress acts. However, the guaranty against deprivation of life, liberty, and property without due process of law has been held to be fundamental and therefore applicable to all United States possessions.

No time was lost by the Navy Department in undertaking the preparation of the Guam expedition. The station ship chosen was the Yosemite, originally the El Sud, built by the Newport News Shipbuilding and Dry Dock Company in 1892, purchased by the Navy in April 1898, converted into an auxiliar cruiser, and employed to blockade the harbor of San Juan during the recent war. A board on repairs for this vessel submitted a report in December 1898, and in January repairs and alterations were commenced at the Norfolk Navy Yard. Upon the recommendation of the Bureau of Navigation quarters for the governor of Guam and a flag officer's outfit were installed at the cost of $5,000. At this navy yard equipment stores, ordnance supplies, clothing, provisions, an ice machine, an evaporator, and machinery for an engineer's work shop were taken on board. Captain Leary reported on board, on January 24, for duty in command of a division of the Asiatic Station, which was to consist of such vessels as were assigned to Guam. Enlisted men were received from time to time, and on February 25 a marine guard under Lt. John H. Russell boarded the ship. Early in January orders were issued by the Assistant Secretary of the Navy Charles H. Allen that work on the Yosemite was to take precedence over that on other vessels, but the Bureau of Construction and Repair sent similar orders to the commandant of the navy yard in regard to other vessels, so the work on the Yosemite was delayed, and the ship did not leave Norfolk until April 8.

The final preparations for the voyage were made at the New York Navy Yard where the Yosemite arrived on April 10. Extensive purchases made by Governor Leary from an allotment of $10,000 allowed by the department with the approval of the President from the emergency fund for the Navy, provided by the deficiency act of January 5, 1899, were received on board here. Bought from various New York firms, these purchases included a variety of goods, some new to the government accountants, as follows: toilet articles, notions, band instruments and appurtenances, saddles, flag officer's silver set, sundry articles of silver ware, furniture, billiard tables, cooking utensils, hardware, drinking accouterments, an admiral's China service, an admiral's glass ware, 6 dozen packs of playing cards; baseball, tennis, croquet, and chess equipage; backgammon, dice, checkers, and sporting goods; and sheet music for the band. Some of these things were to furnish the governor's palace; others were for the amusement and recreation of the marine garrison; and others were for the edification of the natives who "were as a class unacquainted with the use of tooth brushes, hair brushes, studs, etc." There were also loaded at New York other stores and supplies, surveying instruments, a mooring buoy, a wind mill, anchors, hawsers, beacons, eleven boxes from the United States National Museum for biological research, a hectograph, a ship's library, tools, and apparatus. The cargo also included portable lighters, building materials, astronomic and photographic equipment, a printing press, special postage stamps for the island, and agricultural implements. At New York defects were discovered in the electric wiring system and an overhauling had to be authorized, producing a further delay in the departure of the ship. On April 25 a board of inspection headed by Rear Admiral Frederick Rodgers inspected the ship, its equipment, personnel, and drill, and on the next day returned to attend sea trials of its machinery. A battalion of marines composed of Major A. C. Kelton, Capts. C. L. A. Ingate, and J. H. Russell, Lts. H. W. Carpenter, A. T. Marix, and R. E. Carmody, 8 sergeants, 8 corporals, 4 musicians, and 99 privates reported on board on the 28th. The ship's personnel wore its best blues on May 1 when the President of the United States and a party of officers from the navy yard and other naval vessels visited the Yosemite to bid it bon voyage. The ship got under way on the 11th on the eastward voyage to the Pacific. Her force numbered nearly 200 in addition to the marine battalion; many of them were specially enlisted mechanics. It was a well equipped but modest expedition.

The long voyage of nearly three month's duration took the vessel across the Atlantic, through the Mediterranean, the Suez Canal, the Gulf of Suez, the Indian Ocean and on to the Philippines and Guam. Stops of varying length were made at Gibraltar, Port Said, Egypt, Colombo, Ceylon, where the homeward bound Olympia with Admiral Dewey on board was encountered, Singapore, and Manila. Nearly two weeks were spent at Manila where ammunition was delivered to the Asiatic Fleet; the final stage of the voyage from that place to Guam took from August 1 to 7.

The naval government of the island of Guam dates from August 10, 1899, the day on which Governor Leary issued the proclamation reproduced on the opposite page.

PROCLAMATION
— TO —
THE INHABITANTS OF GUAM
— AND —
TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:

Pursuant to the provisions of a Treaty of Peace between the United States and Spain, concluded by their respective Plenipotentiaries at Paris, France, the Tenth day of December, Eighteen Hundred and Ninety-Eight, the future control, disposition and government of the Island of Guam are ceded to the United States.

Now therefore, by virtue of the authority vested in me by His Excellency, The President of the United States, I, Richard P. Leary, Captain, United States Navy, and Governor of the Island of Guam, do hereby announce and publicly proclaim my actual occupation and administration of this Island, in the fulfillment of the Rights of Sovereignty thus acquired and the responsible obligations of government thus assumed.

That, you, the Inhabitants of Guam, are hereby informed that in establishing a new Political Power, the authority of the United States will be exerted for the security of the persons and property of the people of the Island and for the confirmation of all your private rights and relations.

That, All political rights heretofore exercised by the Clergy in dominating the people of the Island, are hereby abolished, and everyone is guaranteed absolute freedom of worship and full protection in the lawful pursuits of life, so long as that protection is deserved by actual submission to and compliance with the requirements of the Government of the United States.

That, All public lands and property and all rights and privileges, on shore or in the contiguous waters of the Island, that belonged to Spain at the time of the surrender, now belong to the United States, and all persons are warned against attempting to purchase, appropriate or dispose of any of the aforesaid properties, rights or privileges without the consent of the United States Government.

That, For the present preservation of law and order, the existing laws not conflicting with the provisions of this proclamation will continue in force until modified or annulled by competent authority, and all persons are enjoined to render prompt and cheerful obedience to the same in order that the blessings of good government, with the benefits of civilization and freedom, coupled with happiness and prosperity for the greatest good of the greatest number, may be the heritage of all residents of the Island, as Worthy Citizens of the Island of Guam, under the Free Flag of the United States.

In Witness whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and caused the Seal of the United States Naval Station, Isle of Guam, to be affixed.

Done at Agana, Isle of Guam, this 10 day of August in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and ninety-nine, and of the independence of the United States of America, the one hundred and twenty-third.

Richard P. Leary,

Captain, United States Navy,

Governor of Guam.



Governor's Palace, Agaña, Island of Guam

Governor Leary continued to occupy the quarters on board the Yosemite because the Palace at Agana needed extensive repairs. He moved to the capital on November 26, riding in his imported carriage drawn by white stallions imported from the Philippines with a Filipino coachman. He took with him the Yosemite's band, his Japanese steward and his house servants, who were enlisted men, and established himself in the Palace surrounded by the furniture and paraphernalia brought from the United States.

While the governor remained in the harbor at San Luis d'Apra, he was represented at Agana by his aide, Lt. William Edwin Safford, who arrived on August 13 on the Brutus, which also brought in three Jersey heifers and a bull purchased in California. Lieutenant Safford was a studious man of thirty-nine years, a graduate of the Naval Academy, and a native of Chillicothe, Ohio, who had devoted much of his naval career to studying the plants and peoples of the tropics in which he had made a number of cruises in the past twenty years. He was an accomplished linguist and had taught modern languages at the Naval Academy for two years. Because of his conscientious character, his interest in the tropics, and his familiarity with the Spanish language, he was an excellent selection for the position of aide, which in reality amounted to that of lieutenant governor. He installed himself on August 15 with his Japanese boy, Miyomoto, in the quarters over the public treasury formerly occupied by José Sisto. The apartment was fairly well furnished with a cane-bottomed bed, a table of the native ifil wood, confortable chairs of rattan, and a huge earthenware jar for a bath tub. Among his books were 200 volumes, many annotated, from the library of Robert Louis Stevenson which he had purchased from Mrs. Stevenson's solicitor at Apia, Samoa. Early in September, Safford had to vacate his quarters to make way for a marine barracks, so he purchased a house on the plaza opposite the Palace and separated from the Tribunal by a vacant lot. He later bought the lot in the rear of this property, razed the old building on it, and developed a nursery for the plants he had brought with him from Hawaii and others he obtained in his walks about the island of Guam. On two ranches he acquired in the neighboring country he raised chickens and most of the food for his table. He did not find it difficult, as some Americans did, to become used to the native foods. In his town house he was cared for by Susana, who was reputed to be the best cook on the island.

Lieutenant Safford assumed his official duties at Agana on August 15, relieving the acting governor William Coe. The governor directed him to use his own discretion and to call on him only in emergencies; complaints were to be disposed of by him unless of an unusual character. All sorts of people soon began to bring their troubles to him in his office on the second floor of the Palace or to his home in the evening, and he received them with an unfailing courtesy and understanding that won him the regard of the people of the island. The lieutenant regarded his position as an opportunity to do something for the inhabitants and to ameliorate the conditions under which they lived, and in his dealings with them he asked them to treat him as if he were one of them and not to grant him favors because he was an official. He made an altogether different type of official from the ordinary Spaniard who had come to profit and depart. He formed a close friendship with Padre Palomo, the refined, intelligent, and well educated native priest, who was the most influential man on the island, and who became the lieutenant's advisor.

Political, social, economic. and religious conditions existing in Guam at the time of the occupation were not in accord with American ideals and practices and in some respects were oppressive to the inhabitants. Some of these conditions were known to Governor Leary from his perusal of the reports sent to the department by Lieutenant Cottman and Commander Taussig; others became known to him and to Lieutenant Safford during their conduct of affairs. With the governor's instructions as his sailing directions and his and Safford's education as Americans as an inspiration, the governor, with the assistance of his aide, legislated reforms into Guam's way of life. The legislation was in the form of general orders, a designation undoubtedly suggested by the general orders of the department. Except as modified by these general orders, the Spanish law remained in force in Guam; it consisted in part of compilations of law prepared in Spain for the government of all of its colonies and of others applicable to the Philippines. These Spanish compilations were as follows: Ley Lipotecaria para los provincias de Ultramar, La coda penal, and La coda civil de los Philippinos.

Personal observation and investigation of the customs and habits of life of the Spanish priests having convinced him that their continuance on the island would be "subversive of good government



LT. WILLIAM E. SAFFORD, U. S. N.
AIDE TO GOVERNOR LEARY

and prosperity, injurious to the interests of the community and incompatible with the moral teachings and principles of civilized society. . . I have informed those priests that transportation to Manila has been ordered for them in the U.S.S. Nanshan, and it is my intention to see that they avail themselves of the opportunity to leave this island," wrote the governor to the department on August 28, 1899. Fray FranciscoResano had already moved, pursuant to orders from his superiors, to Saipan. Lieutenant Safford received a visit on September 1 from three Spanish friars who, expressing willingness to become American citizens, begged to be allowed to remain on the island. But Governor Leary was unyielding, and on September 6 the Japanese brig Jun Ho Maru carried away certain friars to Saipan while the priests of Agat and Merizo, Dr. Francisco Napal, the doctor's half-caste son, and the former Spanish assessor left for Manila on the Nanshan. Padre José Palomo was the only priest allowed to continue on the island; he enjoyed a universal respect, confidence, and liking. Whereas the governor regarded the expulsion of the other priests as a good riddance, the retention of Palomo proved beneficial to the American administration, for he became its friend, advocated its measures, and seconded its orders from his pulpit in the church at Agana of which he was given charge. Towards the end of October, Fray Resano sought to return temporarily to Guam from Saipan, but his request was denied by Governor Leary, who instructed Safford to write the friar that the American government did not recognize the Catholic church as a political power and hence was not interested in orders he had from his superiors.

The Nanshan also carried away fifteen of the Filipino ex-convicts, who were deported at the request of the citizens of Guam. Lieutenant Safford investigated the cases involved and found that some of the Filipinos were thrifty, hard-working men, cabinet makers, rice planters, etc. and useful members of the community, so that only the incorrigible ones who had acquired bad reputations were removed. These were marched to Piti and embarked on board the vessel while the women they left behind followed them to the shore weeping with infants in their arms.

The earliest reform attempted by Leary was to curb the use of intoxicating drinks. Excessive use of "La Tuba," a beverage made from the juice of the coconut, kept many of the natives in a stupor much of the time, interfered greatly with their productive capacity, and injured their health. Ranch managers plied the farm laborers with this drink in order to destroy their appetites and thus save money on feeding them. Some of the United States marines at Agana developed a liking for "La Tuba" and, imbibing it in too great quantities, became disorderly. As a step towards the introduction of prohibition, Governor Leary on August 16, 1899 issued General Orders Nos. 1 and 2. The first of these prohibited the sale, issuance, or disposition of in any way of intoxicating liquors in the island to any person not a resident prior to August 7, 1899; the second forbade the importation of intoxicating, spirituous liquors into the island after September 15, except by special licenses issued by the government. Both orders levied penalties upon offenders. To prevent the enlisted men attached to the station from getting the native drink and thus to keep the peace between them and the natives, the governor issued General Order No. 8 on November 1, 1899, which, stating that "drunkenness, the chief source of all crime and trouble in this island must and shall cease," established prohibition on the island of Guam. Special licenses could be obtained from the government for the purchase of liquor, presumably for medicinal purposes. The punishment for the first offense was made 100 dollars Mexican or thirty days in jail, and double this for the second offense. There were no saloons in Guam during the first two American administrations. The effect was a pleasing one to the missionary, Reverend Francis M. Price, who reported that as a result of the liquor laws drunkenness was rarely seen among the natives or the marines. Whatever success these laws had was also a contribution to the health of the island, whose population through excessive use of the coconut drink, like the inhabitants of other island groups in the area, had deteriorated from the habit.

Most residents of Guam raised their own food and took pride in the tracts of land which they owned. To safeguard their ownership and to protect government interests, General Order No. 3 of August 21, 1899 forbade all persons claiming ownership of land from selling or transferring any portion of it without first obtaining the consent of the government. The object of this order was to afford time to see that all titles were properly recorded in the office of the registrar of land titles. As registrar, Lieutenant Safford had possession of the registration books, and by the end of October many people had come to him to have their lands registered. He endeavored to impress upon them the necessity of having this done before the arrival of more foreigners in the island. A warning had to be issued, however, in General Order No. 14 of March 13, 1900 that,

in order to have legal titles, all persons claiming lend must register their titles in Agana before May 15, 1900. During the process of registering titles it was discovered that many persons could not sign their names, so General Order No. 13 was issued on January 23, 1900 requiring every adult resident of the island to learn to write his or her name before the first of July 1900, the government offering to supply samples for copying. It also urged upon all people the desirability of learning to read, write, and speak the English language.

In the fall of 1899 Lieutenant Safford undertook an examination of land ownership in the island as a result of receiving complaints from certain residents that their lands were being trespassed upon. He found that large tracts of land had been granted for grazing purposes but that the owners' herds were very small. To mention the worst case, Vicente Herrero had a large area on the east coast of the island south of the Yigo district and had inherited from his father sixteen square miles along the same coast between the Ilig and Talofofo Rivers. After a young man had sweated and labored for years clearing land adjacent to Don Vicente's plantation in the northern part of the island, the latter claimed it as his land. The farmer disclaimed knowing that it was Herrero's land, stating that he had developed it from virgin forest and that Herrero had known he was doing it. Herrero would not sell the land, and the farmer would not sell the labor he had expended on it, for he was too old to start all over again. Safford, as judge of the court of first instance, decided that the man who had done the labor had more claim to the land and so announced his decision, which was supported by the governor, who was the judge of the Supreme Court of the island. Safford then proposed that a tax be levied on all land regardless of improvements so that owners of large tracts would be obliged to sell land to those who were willing to cultivate it or to turn it back to the government. After studying the classic works of Henry George on the subject, the lieutenant devised a system of land taxation, which was promulgated in General Order No. 10 on January 5, 1900. In place of the Spanish tax on real estate a land tax was imposed, the rate varying according to whether the land was within the limits of a town, suitable for agriculture, forest, or grazing, and the rates declined in amount in this same order. A reduction of twenty per cent was allowed districts remote from the capital because of the difficulty of transporting products to market. The tax because effective immediately and was made payable at the end of June and the end of December. Certificates of tax payments were thereafter to be required for registering titles. Not long after the establishment of the land tax, Vicente Herrero turned over to the government all of the land he claimed in the southern part of the island except a narrow strip along the shore. Land ownership was so universal in Guam that the number of large holders was small; some more of them probably took the same step as Herrero as a result of the tax. Governor Leary confidently reported not long after the issuance of the order that it would have the beneficial result of opening up agricultural lands that had been lying idle and would encourage the native population to improve their condition. Some measure of success along these lines was evidently attained.

As practiced on Guam, the Roman Catholic religion, to which most of inhabitants of the island adhered, embraced certain features which seemed objectionable to the governor. The priests had been not merely the spiritual guides of the people but had had an important effect on the government, for here as in Spanish colonies elsewhere the Spanish crown through its representatives in the island supported the conversion of the islanders, so the priests backed by the officials were able to force Christianization upon them. Since they were in effect public holidays, the numerous church festivals taking place on Guam seriously interfered with the economic life of the people by keeping them away from their work . In fact, feast days usually accompanied by spectacular processions, which delighted the simple natives, were the occasion for debauches lasting several days. The governor put an end to this custom by prohibiting in General Order No. 4 of August 25, 1899 the public celebration of feast days of patron saints of villages, etc; thereafter religious feasts were to be celebrated within the walls of church, chapel, or private residence: and the only public holidays were to be those authorized by the laws of the United States and by proclamation of the President. An effort was being made, reported the governor soon afterwards, to separate church matters from civil and political affairs. Lieutenant Safford observed disappointment among the natives at the abolition of the public celebrations, but they continued their observances privately. Padre Palomo was probably disappointed once more when he received verbal orders from the governor about a month later to cease ringing the church bells at 4 A.M. because they disturbed the patients in the hospital. After the issuance of this order, Lieutenant Safford saw munerous natives who possessed no clocks huddled before the church door

between 2 and 3 A.M. so as not to miss the 4 o'clock mass. The church bells were no longer rung at 4 A.M.; the accustomed ringing was replaced by an irregularity which was disturbing in another way, forcing the governor, on April 29, 1900 to instruct in writing Padre Palomo to desist from tolling the bells until after the military band had ceased playing the salute to the colors. Subsequently the bells began ringing again at 4 A.M.; and then the belfry was destroyed in an earthquake. Cock fighting on Sunday was forbidden on June 11, 1900 (General Order No. 21). Parents, guardians, and precaptors were admonished on May 14, 1900 in General Order No. 19 "to check the pernicious habit of GAMBLING that prevails among young children and to discourage the habit among adults."

The governor's campaign continued, the next object of attack being concubinage. The large fees exacted by the priests for marriages had forced many people on the island to cohabit without benefit of the ceremony. According to General Order No. 5 of September 15, 1899, this practice was to be punishable by fine and imprisonment after November 3, 1899, and until that date licenses and civil ceremonies were to be free. An unforseen difficulty that arose was quickly solved by the governor. Safford reported to him that some men who had been married had left their wives and lived with other women and had children by them. A simple matter, said the governor, we'll grant divorces, and he directed the lieutenant to issue a decree providing for divorces even though they would not be recognized by the Catholic church. The governor reported in October that divorces and marriages had become numerous and that a further step had been taken to make the natives useful and reputable citizens.

Agriculture was the chief occupation on Guam, and practically everybody labored on their own ranches off in the country. Few persons raised more than enough food to satisfy their own needs, so even the artisans and the officials were obliged to farm. The principal money crop was copra obtained from the coconut tree, which also produced other food, drink, fuel, clothing, medicine, material for household implements and boats and building material. Only a small proportion of the cultivable land was in use, and so little extra food was produced that after the destruction of crops by hurricanes famine was widespread until recovery followed. The islanders had little incentive to raise more food; their wants were simple, and they had very little use for money; besides there had not been much of a market for foodstuffs on the island. Production was further reduced by the ancient practice of living in town and farming in the country, a requirement forced upon them by the Spaniards in order to facilitate the collection of taxes, which necessitated the expenditure of much time in travelling slowly back and forth by foot, oxcart, cow, or carabao. Week ends in town had other attractions than the Sunday morning mass, for the sabbath was also devoted to sports, trading, odd jobs, gambling, and cock fighting which was the island sport. The primitive implements used by the ranchers also imposed a limitation on their productive capacity. The agricultural output was further reduced by the destruction wrought by numerous deer, goats, and lizards, and by allowing domestic animals to run loose and get into growing crops. By enforcing the Spanish laws forbidding animals from running loose, the American administration put an end to their pillaging.

The state of agriculture on the island became a serious matter to the administration within a few weeks after the arrival of the expedition, for it became difficult to procure eggs, chickens, meat, and vegetables for the garrison and the men on the station ship. To keep up their health, fresh vegetables were essential, so a means was sought to ensure their production. Lieutenant Safford searched the old Spanish records to ascertain what the former governors had done to increase production and found orders restricting the exportation of food and fostering cultivation. In an effort to induce the natives to produce a little more food than they themselves needed, he drew up similar orders and presented them to the governor who issued them as General Orders Nos. 6 and 7, October 4, 1899, the first of which prohibited the exportation of cattle, hogs, fowl, eggs, rice, and sweet potatoes, and allowed the delivery to ships under government permit of only enough food for the ship's own use during passage to another port; the second required every inhabitant without a trade or habitual occupation to plant sufficient food to support himself and to keep chickens and a sow; free grants of land were offered by the government on condition that they were cleared and cultivated; ranches were to be fenced to protect them from cattle; and local officials were instructed to report in writing on the progress made in agricultural activity. Despite these orders, which at best would require considerable time to achieve results, the food situation on Guam remained a problem for the natives and for the American garrison and was

solved only by importing foodstuffs from the United States. The cattle imported from the United States died because they were unable seemingly to accustom themselves to the green food growing on the island, which they were obliged to consume when the supply of baled hay and bran was exhausted. It was also possible, thought Lieutenant Safford, who made the animals a special charge, that they had eaten plants which the native cattle had learned to avoid.

Lieutenant Safford conducted an unsuccessful experiment in gardening with seed from the United States. He planted beans, peas, sweet corn, melons, and other vegetables; they grew rankly at first and rotted before maturity. He believed that he would have better success if he tried planting at the close of the rainy season as the dry season would correspond to our summer, but he had no opportunity to test this deduction. He imported some California navel orange trees, although oranges were so plentiful on the island that many spoiled.

Some progress was made in improving the public works of the island by means of transfers of funds from the allotment made the governor by the department to the island treasury and by modifying the old Spanish law requiring fifteen days labor on public works from each male between eighteen and sixty years. Roads, bridges, and public buildings were so badly in need of repairs that these extraordinary expedients were adopted. The transfers of funds began early in the administration and continued throughout its duration. The commutation of labor upon public works was discontinued except in extreme cases of necessity, but the provision and payment of substitutes was allowed. Effected by General Order No. 16 March 17, 1900, this requirement placed the commutation, when allowed, at 10 pesos annually, and provided for the return of such commutation as had already been paid. As a means of encouraging industry among the natives and enabling the government to put the main roads in good condition and advance other public improvement and repairs, this devise was "working charmingly" wrote the governor late in May.

Soon after the inauguration of the American government, complaints were received by it from residents that certain servants had escaped. In looking into the matter a system of peonage was discovered by which natives on borrowing money or goods from persons made written agreements to work off the indebtedness by personal labor. Once enmeshed these unfortunates were kept in debt interminably by having to work for very small wages and by having their debts renewed by charges for one thing or another. Benigno Acosta, for instance, borrowed money (16 pesos) from Dona Luisa Quitugua in November 1898 with which to pay the funeral expenses for his mother and then went to work for his creditor. The agreement stipulated that for attending to her farm in the locality called Ipao he was to receive two pesos a month and a third of the foodstuffs; he was to be responsible for unjustified losses of cattle and for damages caused by them; and was to plant daily five coconuts. But the lady kept him from guarding the cattle by sending him on errands and prevented him from getting a share of the crops by having him burn lime all of the time. Considering himself a slave, Benigno presented his case to Safford who solved it by taking the boy into his own employ to clear his ranch above San Ramon at six pesos a month and board and arranging with his creditor for the payment of the debt. Declaring that the system of peonage was a system of slavery, subversive to good government, an obstacle to progressive civilization, a menace to popular liberty, and a violation of the privileges guaranteed by the Constitution of the United States, Governor Leary in a proclamation of January 1, 1900 abolished peonage, effective February 22. The contracts under which the system existed were annulled in order that the natives might work for money and pay off their debts in that commodity. In General Order No. 18 on May 12, 1900 the governor reminded the merchants and others interested in the commerce of the island that the late system of advancing money, stores, or other merchandise for personal labor, copra, or other products of the land not in existence at the time of the purchase was one of the phases of peonage prohibited by law. Mexican coin or the American equivalent was announced to be the currency and legal tender of the island. Barter was difficult to suppress and was used in later years.

The Americans brought to Guam not only a reforming zeal but also an interest in the health of the islanders which was eventually to eradicate some diseases and to curtail others. The sanitary conditions at the time of the occupation were deplorable; there were no sewers, and refuse dumped on the ground, where much of it was disposed of by hogs, polluted the wells sunk into the porous soil. The use of the river at Agana, into which much of the sewage was washed by rains, for washing clothes made skin diseases prevalent. Not even the rudiments of hygiene were



SCHOOLHOUSE AT MERIZO, GUAM

practiced, and the medical care present was one doctor without medicines. The lepers who had been segregated in a hospital had been allowed to escape during the period of the interregnum and were scattered over the island under the care of relatives and friends who thus became exposed to that terrible disease. The bad water obtained from the wells, which were the only source of supply aside from the equally bad rivers, and rain water, caused serious intestinal infections from which many pesrons died. The early navy doctors diagnosed a horrible, disfiguring disease from which numerous natives suffered as syphilis, but this later turned out to be gangosa. The other principal disease was tuberculosis.

Diseases among the natives constituted a danger for the Americans newly arrived on the island, so immediate steps were taken by the government to improve health conditions. Assistant Surgeon Alfred G. Grunwell was ordered late in August 1899 to Agana with a hospital steward, medical stores, and instruments to establish a dispensary where free treatment was given to the native population. The sick in the villages of Piti, Sumay, and Agat were attended by Assistant Surgeon Mack V. Stone, who was located at Port San Luis d'Apra on the station ship as quarantine officer. Steps were taken to improve the sanitary conditions at the capital until a public sewer system could be installed. The people were no longer permitted to dump their refuse outside of their houses, nor were hogs allowed to scavenge. While these measures were going ahead, the governor appealed to the Navy Department for additional medical supplies, surgeons, and stewards. Despite these energetic efforts a typhoid fever epidemic broke out early in the fall and caused a number of deaths during the ensuing months. To keep proper statistics of deaths occurring among the islanders, the governor required, by General Order No. 17 of April 3, 1900, the governadorcillos of the districts to receive reports of deaths and forward them to the governor. Burials were not to take place without a written permit from the governor. A total of 1141 civil patients were treated gratis by the medical officers from August 7, 1899 to July 31, 1900; their diseases being classified as typhoid fever, dysentery, intestinal diseases, syphilis, leprosy, and miscellaneous. The natives at Agat and Sumay under the direction of Surgeon Stone built hospitals at their own expense. The presence of lepers outside of confinement was known, Safford encountering them on his walks about the island; a leper hospital was established, but nothing was done at this time to segregate them again. The experiments initiated by the doctors in these days in the treatment of tropical diseases ultimately led to treatments which effected remarkable and widespread cures.

The schools of Guam had been conducted by the Recollet friars, so when they were expelled it became necessary to devise some other means of running them. Schools had been maintained at each of the villages, the friars being assisted by very poorly paid native teachers, principally to teach the natives Spanish. In his report of August 28, 1899 upon conditions in the island, the governor stated that measures had been taken to organize schools; he requested instruments for a band which would be instructed by the band master, elementary school books for beginners, and kindergarten outfits. But it proved impossible to accomplish much because of the poor state of the island's finances. Lieutenant Safford himself undertook to instruct in English, early in the fall of 1899, three evenings a week, securing from the natives fifty pupils ranging from five to fifty years of age, from the American band a number of Italians, and from the officer's mess a number of Chinese. The youngsters had other sources of information, as the governor learned when one of them greeted him with "Hello, bub!" Though it had apparently not yet established schools for the island, the government placed the public education system under its exclusive control by General Order No. 12, January 22, 1900, which also prohibited religious instruction in favor of any particular creed, declaring that the proper place for such training was in the home circle, church, chapel, or Sunday school. Children between eight and fourteen were required to attend school unless excused by competent authority. Instruction in the English language was to be introduced as soon as suitable teachers could be obtained, the present force of native teachers being expected to cooperate with the teachers of English. About this time a Mrs. J.M. Rumberg, the wife of an American settler on the island was appointed teacher of English at Agana. In other towns on the island the native school teachers carried on by themselves, the government apparently doubling their pay from $3 Mexican to $6 per month. The government was obliged to announce on May 14, 1900 in General Order No. 19 that the requirement of General Order No. 12 were not being complied with and directed the gobernadorcillos to remove immediately all crucifixes and saint's pictures from the public schools and direct the teachers to discontinue instructions in the church catechism.

To run the island government it was necessary to have money to pay the salaries of officials and school teachers and for public works, and the money had to be raised from local sources, for Congress did not adopt the Spanish policy of providing a subsidy. Aside from paying the salaries of the naval officers who filled governmental positions and providing medical supplies which were used for the natives, the United States Government made no regular contribution to the maintenance of the island government. The taxes formerly imposed by the Spanish, which have been described, were continued, except that the real estate tax was abolished in favor of a land tax. As an additional source of revenue, dog licenses were instituted on January 1, 1900, pursuant to General Order No. 9 of December 6, 1899, which also stipulated that animals large or small were not to be permitted to run loose on the streets nor to encroach on the property of neighbors.

As there was no other manner in which to raise sufficient funds, it became necessary to impose a duty on imports. Lieutenant Safford under direction of the governor undertook the preparation of a tariff schedule, which he endeavored to do in such a way as to encourage the cultivation of rice, coffee, and sugar, and to discriminate in favor of American goods. A printed schedule of "Tariff Rates for the Island of Guam" signed by the governor was promulgated on November 3, 1899. Except for alcoholic liquors, goods from the United States were to be admitted free. The tariff imposed heavy duties on liquor, luxuries, and on foodstuffs which competed with those produced in the island. An export duty of three pesos per ton was levied upon copra shipped from the island to foreign ports. Medicines, some building materials and supplies, publications, and some foods were free. The rates were mostly ad valorem, payable in Mexican coin or its equivalent.

The governor's tariff schedule was soon replaced by one sent from the Navy Department. A copy of the schedule forwarded by the governor to Washington late in November 1899 reached the Treasury Department and produced a letter dated January 8, 1900, from the secretary of that department, Lyman J. Gage, to the Secretary of the Navy, expressing a number of criticisms of the schedule to the following effect: (1) specific duties were preferable to ad valorem duties because they made certified invoices and expert appraisers of value unnecessary, (2) some of the rates on articles of clothing, food, etc. were exorbitant, (3) unenumerated merchandies was not provided, for, (4) no regulations for entry, etc., nor provisions for covering, tare, etc., (5) additions should be made to the free list such as returned products, and personal effects of travellers, (6) inconsistencies were apparent, as for example, exemption of engravings, photographs, etc., and the imposition of duties on lithographs, and wide differences in the duties on liquors. The tariff and regulations for the Philippine Islands modified to meet the different conditions in Guam were suggested as a substitute. At the request of the Navy Department, Robert P. Porter, a journalist and statistician who had been a member of the U.S. Tariff Commission and who had been sent to Cuba and Puerto Rico in 1898 as special fiscal and tariff commissioner, one or two Treasury Department employees prepared a new tariff for Guam. A quantity of the new "Customs Tariff and Regulations for Guam" was sent to the governor of that island by the Assistant Secretary on February 12, 1900 with instructions that by order of the President it was to remain in force until duty modified, suspended, or revoked. The president's order of February 1 contained therein directed that an accurate account was to be kept of the collections and expenditures and rendered to the Secretary of the Navy. The regulations contained directions concerning entries and clearances of vessels, entry of merchandise, tables of import rates of duty, forms and certificates to be used, and oaths to be administered. The duties had to be paid by Americans, members of the garrison and others, as well as by natives. The tariff became the chief financial support of the island government. After it went into effect, Governor Leary by General Order No. 20 of June 8, 1900 terminated the export duty on copra.

To meet the expenses of the island for labor, cartage, transportatior of stores and building material, and constructing public works, it was necessary for Governor to utilize a portion of an allotment of $10,000 from the emergency fund Navy Department 1900 allowed him at his request before his departure from the United States. At intervals during the year he transferred from this fund to the island treasury a total of $5,632, and only $186.91 of this amount appears to have been repaid. To have paid it entirely would have emptied the island treasury. After Leary's return to the United States the Navy Department had some difficulty with the Auditor for the Navy Department in the Treasury Department in connection with the accounts relating to these transfers and

to those for the purchases made by Leary in New York of furniture, etc., which it was stated had not been purchased in accordance with Navy Regulations. The department maintained that the captain had acted in good faith under authority vested in the President and that conditions attending the inauguration of the government of the island and its remoteness justified the expenditures. The matter was finally adjusted after several months correspondence during late 1900 and early 1901, and resulted in instructions being sent to Governor Schroeder that all disbursements of public money should be made by the pay officer of the station, except expenditures from the insular funds which were to remain in the custody of the treasurer of Guam.

A financial statement forwarded to the Navy Department by Governor Leary in March 1900, presented the condition of the island treasury as follows:

amount in treasury July 1, 1899	2171.51 Mex.
receipts July 1 to Jan. 1, 1900	9415.25 "
expenditures July 1 to Jan. 1, 1900	6767.69 "
amount in treasury Jan. 1, 1900	4819.69 "

After he had audited the figures for the six months ending June 30, 1900, Lieutenant Safford reckoned that the treasury had on hand $10,426.89 Mexican. $3,567.00 had been produced by the sale of postage stamps, and $6,545.72 by import duties; otherwise the treasury would have been almost empty, despite the income from other sources: land tax, trade licenses, registration office, receipts from slaughter houses, cock fights, fines, taxes in lieu of work on roads, fish-pen licenses, passports, gun licenses, dog taxes, and port dues of vessels. The principal expense had been the pay of the native military company, which acted as the police at an cost of over $3,000 and the employees of the treasury and government offices. The pay of some of the civil employees was very low, and there were no funds to pay American school teachers. The force of native police was entirely too large, having been carried over from the Spanish period, and was later reduced much to the advantage of the treasury. Trying to keep the island government solvent was about the greatest problem that confronted the naval governors of Guam, who were constantly obstructed in their endeavors to undertake improvements by the impoverished state of the treasury.

With the establishment of the naval government on the island of Guam, the chief positions in the government, which had formerly been occupied by Spanish army or navy officers, were filled by officers of the United States Navy. As governor, Captain Leary was in complete charge of matters, and like his Spanish predecessor he performed legislative and judicial functions. There was no legislature, for the only legislation permitted consisted of the general orders drawn up by the governor or his aide and issued by the former. The governor also came to fill the following positions: inspector of customs, postmaster, judge of the Supreme Court, and inspector of public schools. The governor's aide, Lieutenant Safford, also had multiple jobs, filling the positions of registrar of lands, deeds, and titles; auditor of the treasury; and judge of the court of first instance. He felt poorly qualified for the last position as his legal experience had been limited to sitting on courts martial. Although Safford felt that he already had enough to do, the governor appointed him judge of the criminal court of the island on January 8, 1900. General supervision of medical and surgical duties were under Surgeon Philip Leach, subordinate to whom were Assistant Surgeons Grunwell and Stone. At San Luis d'Apra Assistant Surgeon Stone functioned as health and quarantine officer. The commandant of the marine garrison at Agana Lt. Col. A.C. Kelton also performed the duites of chief of public works. Subordinate posts in these departments were filled by natives. When Vicente Herrero y Robert resigned as treasurer in October 1899 because the duties of the office did not give him sufficient time for his personal affairs, the interventor, Juan de Torres, was promoted to the place. Pedro Duarte, the former Spanish captain who had been carried away in 1898, and later returned to the island where his wife, the daughter of Henry Millinchamp, and family lived, was appointed inspector of roads and sanitation because he could survey, owned a transit, and possessed knowledge of sanitary engineering.

The judicial system of the island had to be reorganized to some extent because the American occupation brought to an end the jurisdiction of the Tribunal Supremo of Madrid to which appeals could be taken through the audiencia of Manila. Governor Leary created the Supreme Court of

Guam on April 15, 1900 to take the place of the audiencia, apparently intending it to be the highest tribunal in the island. Guided by little codes of Spanish colonial law -- civil, commercial, and criminal -- not much larger than prayer books, Lieutenant Safford as judge of the court of first instance, the old Spanish court which was kept pretty busy after the American occupation, did his best in deciding cases. The governor told him to do as he thought best. Sometimes he had recourse to the wise counsel of Padre Palomo, whose long familiarity with island matters enabled him to be a real help.

By April 15, 1900 the organization of the island government had crystallized sufficiently to permit the publication of an "Official List" showing the different departments and their respective encumbents. In the Department of Government besides Leary and Safford were a government translator, Atanasio Taitano, and a keeper of archives and town crier, Nicolas Lazaro. The captain of insular artillery, Lorenzo Franquez, was placed under the Military Command headed by Lieutenant Colonel Kelton. The Medical Department was composed of Leach, Grunwell, and Stone, and a leper hospital attendant, Pedro Namauleg. With Leary at its head as inspector of customs, the Treasury Department included a deputy collector of customs, William Coe; a treasurer, receiver and paymaster of island funds, Juan de Torres; a chief clerk, Joaquin Diaz; a clerk, Manuel Untalan, and a city clerk, Agana, Demetrio Quitugua. The Post Office Department included Leary as postmaster, Kelton as assistant postmaster, and a clerk, Atanasio Taitano. The governor, as judge of the Supreme Court, headed the Department of Justice, which embraced the court of first instance, a court interpreter, a clerk of court, accompanying witnesses, and a clerk of magistrate's court. The Land Office was headed by the registrar of lands, deeds and titles, who was assisted by and assistant registrar, Vicente Camacho, and a writer. For the operation of the port of San Luis d'Apra there was a Marine Department with the following officials: captain of the port, William Coe; and government pilot, Henry Millinchamp, who had occupied the post under the Spanish. There was also a captain of the port at Umata which was occasionally used by small trading vessels. The Department of Education included, besides the governor as inspector of public schools, a principal of public schools, Agana, Felipe Cruz; Mrs. Rumberg, the teacher of English at the same place; four native teachers at Agana and others at Maria Cristina, Anigua, Asan, Tepungan, Sinahana, Agat, Umata, Merizo, Sumay, and Inarahan. In addition to Kelton and Duarte, the Department of Public Works included an engineer in charge of government works, Lt. H. L. Collins, U.S.N.; and two assistants, one a warrant machinist in the U.S. Navy and the other a native. The jailer, Agana prison, Juan del Rosario; two assistants, two constables, and a recorder of prison made up the Department of Prisons. A Department of Agriculture included only the inspectors of crops and inspectors of stock in the four districts into which the island was divided for purposes of local government.

An incident that occurred in June 1900 is an interesting commentary on naval government. Deciding that the government needed the property occupied by Lieutenant Safford on the plaza facing the Palace, the governor condemned it on June 11, by virtue of the right of eminent domain and of the authority vested in him as governor, had an award made by a board of appraisers, directed the lieutenant to comply with the order and turn over the keys to the chief of public works, and instructed him as registrar to prepare papers describing the property and register them. Ever since his arrival on the island Safford had spent considerable time and effort developing his residence as a home and a nursery; he protested against the governor's action on the ground that he had not complied with the Spanish law in the condemnation proceedings and refused to register the transfer. The governor thereupon removed Safford from the positions of registrar and judge of the court of first instance and appointed another officer, Ens. Henry L. Collins, to these positions. For failing to comply with the instructions originally given to Safford, Collins was also removed, after declaring the governor's action was an act of confiscation not in accord with the laws in force in the island. The governor then issued a special notice abrogating the Spanish laws relating to the condemnation of property in the island, making it retroactive to June 3, 1900. Safford accepted payment for his house under protest, but was allowed to remain in it during the rest of his stay on the island and apparently was restored to his old positions. In connection with the settlement of the accounts involved in the transaction, the matter was referred to the Attorney General of the United States, who held in an opinion communicated to the Secretary of the Navy on September 22, 1903 that the proceedings conducted by the governor and the acceptance of the award by the owner vested the title to the property in the United States and that the power of the governor under the instructions dated January 12, 1899 was intended to be plenary and authorized him to do what the exigencies of military government required.

The framework of local government as it had existed under the Spanish was retained, the same positions and in most cases the same officials being continued. In April 1900 the gobernadorcillos, who were directly responsible to the governor, of the districts of Agana, Agat, Merizo, and Inarahan were Gregorio Perez, Jose Pineda, Felix Roberto, and Juan Napute, respectively. They were assisted by local lieutenants at Agana, Asan, Anigua, Tepungan, Sumay, Umata, Inarahan, and Sinahana. The justices of the peace in the four districts were Louis de Torres, Juan Pangelinan, Pedro Cruz, and José Duenas in the same order as above. The teachers in the local town have already been mentioned; they were under the governor as inspector of public schools. In each of the districts were inspectors of crops and inspectors of stock. The native officials in the outlying villages received only nominal pay and were obliged, like the other officials on the island, the school teachers, and the members of the native artillery company to maintain their own ranches in order to have sufficient food. At the end of September 1899, the gobernadorcillo of Agana resigned on account of not getting much pay and not having time under the new administration to look after personal affairs and the care of his farm and plantation. By upholding the decisions of the local officials as much as possible, the government sought to instill respect for them among the natives.

One thing the native officials had to learn was that dishonesty and graft would not be tolerated. In September 1899 when accused of altering a land record, the gobernadorcillo of Merizo admitted his guilt and was promptly removed from office. In the next year the gobernadorcillo of Agana was detected in diverting to his own ranch laborers supposed to be engaged upon public wroks. He pleaded that it had always been the custom and that he had not been informed of a change, but he was brought to trial, the governor hoping that the punishment meted out would put an end to the custom.

Near the end of October 1899 a Spanish commission whose duty it was to collect Spanish property in the Marianas arrived in Guam under the presidency of Col. Cristobal de Aguilar on the S.S. Uranus. The colonel arranged with Lieutenant Safford for receiving certain property belonging to the military branch of the late Spanish government in accordance with the treaty of peace. The property appears to have been of small extent and value, consisting in part of some old guns on decaying carriages near the Palace, old cannon balls, and old muskets which had been in the arsenal at the time of the capture of the island by the Charleston. The material was disposed of in an auction to local artisans who wanted to melt down the metal. Safford himself bought two bed frames and a large ammunition chest in which he planned to keep his plants. The commission departed on the 30th bound for Saipan and Yap. Another duty of Colonel Aguilar seems to have been to turn over to the Germans the islands which they had purchased from the Spanish.

Hurried off in the midst of the war, the Spanish officers had left behind the archives of the government of the island. They were examined by Lieutenant Safford soon after his arrival and were found in bad condition as a result of damage by insects and mildew. At the instance of the Librarian of Congress, who was then engaged in a vigorous effort to secure custody of the archives of the territories of the United States, the governor shipped the records, except for those relating to land, to Washington in a single case in 1903, and they were transferred by the Navy Department to the Library of Congress where they have remained ever since.

Governor Leary's administration endured a bit less than a year. In a communication to the Secretary the Navy of February 8, 1900 he requested to be detached in July at the expiration of his sea cruise as a captain as he would then have had forty-five months of almost continuous sea service and as his presence would be needed at home for domestic reasons. He was relieved by Comdr. Seaton Schroeder on July 19, 1900, and Safford was relieved on the 30th by Ensign Alfred W. Pressey, who had arrived with the new governor. The ex-governor and his aide sailed on August 2 on board the Yosemite for Cavite whence they returned to the United States. After serving for nearly a year in command of the receiving ship Richmond at Philadelphia Navy Yard, Captain Leary was detached in October 1901 and placed on sick leave. He died from heart disease on December 27, 1901 while visiting his brother-in-law at the marine hospital at Chelsea, Mass. It is probable that he was not a very well man while stationed at Guam. Lieutenant Safford resigned his commission in the Navy in August 1902 to accept an appointment as assistant curator of the Office of Tropical Agriculture in the United States Department of Agriculture. While stationed at Guam, he had diligently collected plants and studied the

native language, and in 1905 he published a valuable work on The Useful Plants of the Island of Guam, which has a wider application than its title indicates, and in the American Anthrolologist in 1903-1905 a study on the Chamorro language. An interesting diary kept while on Guam was published in the Plant World in 1902-1904 as A Year on the Island of Guam, issued in a separate form about 1910, and partly reprinted in the Guam Recorder in 1933-1936. He continued with the Department of Agriculture for a quarter of a century, becoming a prominent botanist, ethnologist, and philologist.

Some of the changes instituted by Governor Leary attracted attention in the United States. Certain Catholic periodicals disapproved of his expulsion of the priests and of his other measures concerning religion. Having been appointed the apostolic delegate for the new possessions acquired by the United States, the archbiship of New Orleans sailed late in 1899 to visit the Philippines, intending to stop off at Guam, but the short stay of the army transport on which he was travelling prevented this on the westward voyage. From Manila, where he probably obtained full details of Leary's measures, the cleric wrote an irate and threatening letter to the governor, to which the latter replied that the interests of the community were his constant study and that if he were convinced any of his general orders should be changed he would do so, concluding that in the future the clergyman should address his letters to the department at Washington. Later in the same month (February 1900) Leary wrote the clergyman withdrawing the invitation to visit the island which he had extended in December. The correspondence in this case was forwarded to the Navy Department, which had been kept regularly informed of the governor's measures and had not disapproved of them.

At the instance of Major General Elwell S. Otis, commanding general of the U. S. Army in the Philippines and military governor of those islands, and with the approval of the President, who had probably heard about complaints concerning Leary's purported interference with the religious and civil rights of the people of Guam the island became the scene of a visitation by an army officer early in 1900. Joseph Wheeler, famous Confederate cavalry leader, lawyer, and cotton planter, who had been commissioned a major general of volunteers at the outbreak of the Spanish-American War, had served gallantly in the campaign against Santiago, Cuba, and had been sent with a brigade to the Philippines, was ordered by General Otis on January 16, 1900, to stop off at Guam on his way to San Francisco, investigate conditions there, the administration of the United States officer in charge, the work accomplished and in contemplation, and the public advantages afforded by the island by reason of its location and physical features. In compliance with instructions from the Secretary of the Navy, Rear Admiral J. Crittenden Watson, commander-in-chief of the United States Naval Force on the Asiatic Station, directed Governor Leary in an order of January 19, the substance of which was communicated to Otis and Wheeler, to receive the latter with consideration but not to take any orders from him. Both Watson and Leary protested to the Navy Department against the issuance by the War Department of an order such as that addressed by Otis to Wheeler, providing for the inspection by an army officer of a naval command. Leary regarded Otis's order, which refered to him as the "United States officer in charge," as an indignity and wrote a letter, which was intercepted by Watson, to the general informing him of his status. The Bureau of Navigation thought that a representation should be made to the President against the impropriety and bad effect of an investigation of such a character, but Secretary Long just seems to have had the papers filed.

When General Wheeler arrived at Guam on the Transport Warren on February 6, he presented his orders to Governor Leary and was escorted about the capital by him. With horses borrowed from the governor and Pedro Duarte, trips were made by General Wheeler and a party consisting of his secretary, Mr. Garret, William Bengough of Harper's Weekly, and, at Wheeler's request, Lieutenant Safford, across the island to Pago, north to Mount Santa Rosa from the summit of which a view of a third of the island was enjoyed, and south through the towns of Asan, Agat, Umata, Merizo, Inarahan (Ynarajan), and across the island from the latter place to Sumay whence on the 10th the general's party boarded the transport. During these journeys Wheeler asked Safford many questions about the administration of the island, and received explanations of the measures which had been taken to further the interests of its people. He also had interviews with the governor, Padre Palomo, and town officials; in fact, every facility was extended to him in his quest for information, so that on his long voyage home he was able to write a report.

General Wheeler's report, which was submitted to the President and by him referred to the Secretary of the Navy for whatever action the suggestions contained therein might make desirable, gave the island administration a clean bill of health. The report appeared in the same year as a War Department publication and was the first report on Guam to be published by the government. It contained information about the geography of the island, its products, animals, people, towns, roads, history, and the naval administration, and incorporated some information about the island which the general had collected while in the Philippines; an appendix contained the general orders issued by the governor and the tariff rates. Presenting explanations for the most important measures adopted by the naval administration, he stated "There is no question but that the governor and his aide, Lieutenant Safford, have used their best judgment in framing the the orders which have become the laws of the island of Guam." It was not evident, he thought, however, that the land tax would cause considerable property to pass out of the hands of those persons owning considerable bodies of unencumbered land. He recommended that a court of law be created under a man learned in the law as he feared that the decisions then being rendered might not be sound and that difficulty might arise as to the authority of a naval officer to give decisions affecting property rights. Regarding the harbor of San Luis d'Apra as suitable for a coaling station, he suggested that a pier, a railroad running from Cabras Island to the main island, and a breakwater along the length of Luminan Reef be constructed. After the publication of this report, the Navy Department was able to refer inquirers to it for information concerning Guam.

On the day that he took charge of affairs on Guam, Commander Schroeder wrote the department as follows:

> I am much impressed by the extent and excellence of the work that has been done in evolving order from chaos. I consider myself extremely fortunate to be the successor of an officer whose administration has been so wise, and characterized by such good judgment, and whose untiring work has produced such excellent results.

CHAPTER V

ADMINISTRATION OF GOVERNOR SCHROEDER

Comdr. Seaton Schroeder received orders for duty as governor of Guam, in April 1900, after the Secretary of the Navy heard him remark at a dinner that he liked the pleasure of foreign service. A native of Washington, D. C., where he was born in 1849, Schroeder soon after graduating from the Naval Academy had had several years service in the U.S.S. Benicia on the Asiatic Station and was familiar with the Spanish language. He had been executive officer of the U.S.S. Massachusetts during the Spanish-American War when it bombarded the shore batteries at Santiago de Cuba. Sailing from San Francisco in a vessel of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company to Nagasaki, Japan on May 11, 1900, he took command of the Yosemite at Yokohama on the 30th. From that port the vessel steamed to Manila for coal and stores and leaving Cavite on June 30 reached Guam a week later. While Commander Schroeder learned about the affairs of Guam from Governor Leary, his aide, Ensign Alfred W. Pressey, who had reported on board the Yosemite on April 24, was initiated into the duties of the offices which had been held by Safford. A ball was given for the new governor of Guam, on July 20, tne day after he succeeded Leary, by the citizens of Guam, who had continued friendly to the American administration. Except for the period from August 11 to November 2, 1901 when he was called to Washington to attend the court of inquiry asked for by Admiral Schley as a result of the controversy with Admiral Sampson over the conduct of the Santiago campaign, Governor Schroeder remained on the island continuously until relieved. During the governor's absence his place was taken by Comdr. William Swift, a veteran officer, who was detached from the command of the Yorktown, which carried Schroeder from Guam to Yokohama.

The orders originally communicated to Commander Schroeder made him the commander of a division of the Asiatic Fleet, as Captain Leary had been before him, but these orders were modified by others of May 9, 1900, which relieved him of this command. The isolation of Guam and the nature of its administration had made it impossible for the commander-in-chief of the Asiatic Station to exercise any real control, a situation which was recognized by the dispatch to Guam, in November 1900, of orders making the governorship an independent command.

During Governor Schroeder's administration further progress was made along the lines initiated by Leary, whose work in most cases formed the basis for that accomplished by the second administration. If there was no longer room for extensive reforms, there was an opportunity to improve on some of them, to ameliorate others, and there were still a few fields of endeavor open. By General Order No. 32 of July 19, 1901, it was provided that in violations of General Orders Nos. 1, 2, and 8, concerning the sale and importation of liquor and prohibition, conviction could be secured by the adduction of sworn testimony before the governor, who would thereupon impose the punishment, which was now made a fine of $100 Mexican, or imprisonment for a month, or both, and confiscation of the offender's goods for violations of both orders 1 and 2. Unless useful for medical purposes the confiscated goods were to be destroyed and a certificate of destruction prepared.

In the field of medicine, the early labors of the Navy doctors were continued and extended. In announcing that the government would maintain the hospitals at Agat and Sumay, on August 14, 1900 (General Order No. 24), and would continue to provide gratis treatment there and at Agana, the governor urged all persons suffering from disease to present themselves for care and treatment. All midwives were required by General Order No. 28 of November 1, 1900 to take courses of instruction after December 1 in the naval hospital at Agana in order to secure licenses to practice. The enforcement of this law resulted in a reduction in the hitherto deplorable rate of mortality among mothers and infants. Supported by the government, a campaign opened early in 1901 to raise money to construct a civil hospital at Agana, succeeded in obtaining 1800 pesos, an amount which was more than matched by the island government. The two story structure completed after some difficulty in getting material was named at the request of the populace after Maria Schroeder, the wife of the governor, who had taken an active part in the movement and had secured contributions from the United States. The accommodations afforded by the new hospital, which had space for twenty patients and a dispensary, greatly facilitated the care of the civilian population. Among them there were twenty-two deaths that fiscal year (1901) from epidemic



Governor Schroeder mounted on his favorite horse

catarrh, fifty-seven from dysentery, and others from puerperal fever, the deaths from the last, however, being reduced by the law relating to midwives. The first results of the vital statistics, which had been provided for by Governor Leary, showed a total of 255 deaths during this year, including thirty-four caused by the hurricane, and 325 births, the excess of births over deaths being greater than in previous years. Despite the efforts made by the government to make known its readiness to supply medical care and treatment, some islanders failed to present themselves and died; others came too late and also died. The records, according to the governor's report of July 16, 1902, showed the chief causes of death to be dysentery and consumption; others resulting from tetanus and asthma, the latter usually in old persons. Yet general conditions were improving, the statistics showing for the fiscal year (1902) 412 births and 243 deaths.

By act of the governor of November 16, 1901, a civil register was established for the island of Guam to contain a record of all deaths, marriages, births, and entries into and departures from the island. The information desired for each type of entry was described in the General Order No. 36, which was an important law for the protection of individuals, who were required to report the desired information to the official in charge of the register. This law also stipulated that marriages performed by all ordained clergymen and priests of whatsoever religious faith and by justices of the peace were legal and prescribed rules for issuing marriage licenses. All divorces and marriages that had occured between September 15, 1899 and July 19, 1900 were declared to be valid, but legally separated persons were reminded of their obligations towards their descendants.

Upon receiving in February 1902 a report of the presence of four lepers on the island, Governor Schroeder took immediate action to inaugurate a systematic search for others who might be in concealment, to provide for their temporary segregation, and to found a permanent leper colony. Since the former leper hospital grounds at Asan had been converted into a prison camp for Filipino insurrectionists, he requested the Navy Department in March 1902 to furnish $2,000 in gold to buy other land and pay a portion of the cost of erecting buildings, and in the meantime he went ahead. He was still trying to get this money from the department for the island government in 1905. Inspections were made by the governor to select a site for the colony, and a location was chosen at the western end of Tumon Bay on the northwestern coast of the island above Agana Bay, where clearing of the ground was under way early in April. Although it was isolated, this location was accessible from the capital by a fairly good road and was as healthy and safe a spot as could be found. Here on June 12, 1902, by General Order No. 43, the Tumon leper colony was established, and the twenty-five lepers who had been discovered were installed there in small, thatched houses; a hospital, mess room, kitchen, chapel, a modest residence for the superintendent and two watchmen, and a sewered latrine completed the layout. The regulations for the conduct of the colony contained in the law mentioned required particular care in the diagnosis of cases in order to prevent persons from being made inmates who had other diseases.

The health of the islanders could have been fostered by the improvement of the educational system, particularly would instruction in English have facilitated the dissemination of information about medical care and hygiene. However, little advancement was made in the public schools until after the passage of a year. Lt. Albert Moritz, the chief engineer of the Yosemite, attempted to fill in the gap in a measure by conducting private classes at Agana while stationed at Guam during 1900-1901. A private school for teaching English was opened in the former year by Miss Rosa Custino, the daughter of a native whaler, who had returned to the island after living in Hawaii; this school continued until the departure of the teacher in 1902. At the request of the governor the Navy Department undertook in 1901 to obtain a teacher of English to be paid $100 gold per month from the island treasury and provided with transportation out and back. Learning of this opportunity from Ensign Pressey, Mr. H. H. Hiatt of Broken Bow, Nebraska, a graduate of the University of Iowa and an experienced teacher, with a wife and a daughter who could also teach, applied for the position in June. He got the appointment, for the department believed that the services of his wife and daughter would also be valuable. Under the superintendence of Mr. Hiatt and with the assistance of the two women of his family, three schools for public instruction in English were opened at Agana on October 1. Other schools were soon introducing the same instruction at Asan and Agat, two qualified non-commissioned officers of the marines being employed as teachers, as well as a young Chamorro woman. This modest beginning did not permit instructing all of the children between eight and fourteen who under the law were supposed to attend, but

it was successful as far as it went, thanks to the dilligence of Mr. Hiatt. Unfortunately there was no money in 1902 to continue the employment of the Hiatts and, after the closing of the schools on July 31, they returned to the United States. Through monetary assistance afforded by the Jagatna Civil Club of Agana, which was composed of civil employees of the naval station, and contributions received from the naval personnel on the island, the governor was evidently able to reopen the schools at the capital at least temporarily in the fall of 1902. Relaxing his predecessor's policy, Governor Schroeder in 1901 permitted four Capuchin friars to enter the island, thus acquiring that many teachers for its people. Rivalling the activities of the Catholic mentors, was the American missionary Rev. Francis M. Price, who, after arriving in 1900, with native assistance conducted a day school and a manual training school. Lieutenant Moritz after his return to the United States was of assistance in forwarding donations of school books.

For some time after the American occupation, the Catholic Church had no opposition in the practice of religion. Informal services were held by Colonel Kelton for the marines, first at the barracks and later in a private dwelling, and a few natives attended. In the fall of 1900 this congregation numbered about twelve people and included the governor. More benign and amiable than his predecessor, Governor Schroeder softened the interdict against religious processions by allowing them when a committee headed by the padre could present good reasons for his doing so. To the natives the typhoon of 1900 was a visitation resulting directly from their failure to parade in April in fulfillment of a vow made after the earthquake of 1858. In the General Order (No. 26, September 15, 1900) announcing the modification of General Order No. 4, Governor Schroeder declared that days on which processions were held were not to be public holidays and gave a list of the holidays which were observed in the United States.

As missionaries of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, a Congregational minister, the Rev. Francis M. Price, his wife, his son-in-law, Edward E. Hyde, and his two daughters arrived in Guam on the U.S.S. Solace in November 1900. To convert people who had known only a single religion for over two centuries was not easy, but Price was something of a crusader. In a rented house in Agana was installed a chapel which was attended by a few natives who had participated in the previous, informal services, and members of the marine garrison, who were without benefit of a chaplain. Threats and then persecutions were used by members of the Catholic faith, according to Price, to restrain their fellows from joining in the Protestant observances. After the chapel was stoned when occupied by worshippers, who were likewise attacked on the street, the governor had to intervene to prevent further disturbance. For months the street in front of the chapel was patrolled to prevent violence and to teach the islanders that freedom of religion would be enforced by the American administration. Apart from this necessary performance of duty, the governor showed no special favors although he himself was a member of the Protestant congregation, which indeed had some staunch natives among its membership. By October 1903 a Protestant church of thirty-one members and thirty probationers was formally organized, and on November 1 the first communion service was celebrated in the island.

Two new laws relating to the public land were enacted by Governor Schroeder. "For the purpose of securing uniformity and equal justice to all applicants for grants of unclaimed land," General Order No. 31, May 23, 1901, provided that land granted for farming or grazing had to be cultivated or kept stocked with cattle before the beneficiary would be entitled to register the land, otherwise the concession would be annulled and the property revert to the government. Applications for grants were to be in writing and were to present certain information about the applicant and the land desired. No land bearing a large amount of hard wood was to be granted as it was regarded necessary to retain the forests under the protection of the government to prevent the trees from being cut down for export. Land was evidently granted free, for the law makes no mention of money, in the hope that agricultural production would be increased. An amplification of General Order No. 15, concerning the process by which titles were to be obtained for real estate, was contained in General Order No. 42 of April 9, 1902, which stipulated that the provisions of the existing Spanish Land Law (Ley Hipotecaria) regarding the granting of titles by the courts of justice were still in effect, and that owners of real estate or of equity therein could petition for grants of title according to that law. Thus additional means of protection were assured small land holders.



GUAM NATIVES WITH WATER BUFFALOES AND STUDEBAKER WAGON

For its own well-being as well as that of the inhabitants, the government continued agricultural experiments. In an effort to find out what American produce might be grown there and what new plants might be introduced, vegetable and grass seeds were imported and planted. The experimental plantings indicated that carrots, turnips, sweet potatoes, radishes, and lettuce could be successfully grown. Corn, cantaloupes, beets, salsify, tomatoes, Irish potatoes, peas, and beans were tried without the same success. For some plants there was too much heat, for others too much rain, and for others too many bugs. The tomatoes went to vines; the white potatoes did not produce; onions failed to grow; the American watermelon grew well but was no better than the native melon. The hurricane (or typhoon, as such storms were generally called in the Western Pacific) of November 1900 ruined the natives crops and destroyed their coconut trees, causing great hardship for months and stopping the export of copra for several years until the trees could again grow and bear fruit. Despite all the efforts made by the government, the island was not yet producing sufficient food for its own consumption in the fall of 1902. The governor recommended to the department in that year that the Department of Agriculture be requested to establish an agricultural experiment station on the island, a matter which he had discussed with the Secretary of Agriculture on his visit to Washington in the preceding year.

A chief reason for the backward state of agriculture on Guam was the lack of public roads; these became during Governor Schroeder's administration the chief item of expenditure for public works. Under the charge of the chief of public works were in addition bridges, public buildings, the sewer and water pipes outside of buildings, and the transportation of coal, stores, and personnel. By building new roads and improving the old ones, the governor planned to make it easier to bring produce to the capital and to the port and to induce more people to take up land and pursue farming. Within a year after his arrival, the governor had personally visited almost all parts of the island on foot and on bull back, thus acquiring first hand knowledge of the existing roads and paths, the most productive agricultural areas, the products of the island, and the condition of the people. It was believed that by building an arterial road through the region east of Agana, which was the most important agriculturally, that ranch owners would construct branch roads leading to it. But it required all of the road tax labor for 1901 to restore the Piti-Agana-Maria Christina road to its previous state after the damage done by the hurricane of November 1900, and no other labor or money was available, even to repair the bridges that had been injured. During the fiscal year 1902, however, a considerable amount of work was expended in repairing and improving roads, bridges, schoolhouses, other public buildings, and in erecting the civil hospital and the leper colony. In road building cascajo (coral rock) was used with very satisfactory results. Work was not commenced on the new road to the east, but improvement was accomplished on the road between Piti and Agat, which was partly rerouted, and on the road from Merizo to Ynarajan. Through the exercise of energy and tact, the chief of public works managed to persuade enough of the farmer islanders to labor on the public works. By the summer of 1902 the state of the island's finances necessitated halting work on public improvements although some of them could not be used until completed.

Chiefly in connection with the road construction program, a topographical survey of the island was made during 1901-1902 by Civil Engineer Leonard M. Cox, U.S.N., the chief of public works, with the assistance of Pedro Duarte. To facilitate the prosecution of the survey, the governor on November 29, 1901 issued General Order No. 37, decreeing that officials engaged on the survey should have the right to enter private ground where necessary and cut down trees and shrubs and erect signals. The results of this survey were published in a large chart by the U. S. Hydrographic Office in 1904.

The activities of the island government were dependent upon its financial condition, a matter to which Governor Schroeder gave his early and constant attention. Numerous changes were made in the tax system to make it easier to administer, to obtain more funds, and to improve collections. In order not to compel people to make two trips each year to the capital, the land tax was made payable annually by General Order No. 23, August 10, 1900. Not long after his accession the governor appointed a committee to examine and report upon the existing laws, regulations, and customs relating to fees, such as criminal and civil court fees, fees for licenses, passports, notaries' and land judges' certificates in order to codify laws and simplify procedure. A result of the study was General Order No. 27, October 20, 1900, which provided as follows:

GOVERNMENT HOUSE.

AGANA, ISLAND OF GUAM, October 20, 1900.

GENERAL ORDER)
No. 27.)

1. In all cases where public officials receive a salary, the fees provided by law as payable to them by the Government are hereby abolished.

2. In all cases where public officials receive a salary exceeding six dollars a month, the fees paid to them under provisions of law by private parties shall be covered into the Island Treasury. Officials who are responsible for the issuance of permits or the fulfillment of obligations for which these fees are charged, shall collect the fees and deposit them in the Treasury, taking receipts therefor and keeping an account of the same; and such officials shall hold their accounts ready for inspection at any time and by such person as may be appointed by the Governor.

3. The fee for a marriage license is hereby fixed at $1.00.

4. The following fees are hereby established for services performed by Land Judges:

Defining and bounding town property----------	$0.50
" " " other " ----------	1.00

Double fees shall be paid when the Land Judge is required to travel more than five (5) kilometers from his residence. Land Judges are required to perform these services whenever required, and within a reasonable time after the receipt of notice.

5. The annual dog tax is hereby fixed at 50 cents, under such regulations as may be prescribed.

6. The use of stamped paper, or the payment of the equivalent when ordinary paper is used, in judicial proceedings, shall no longer be required.

7. The laws relating to raffles are so far modified that no license or fee shall be required for holding them. All other provisions regulating these and other operations or games of hazard are continued in force.

8. Officials in charge of departments or offices where fees are paid, will cause to be posted in their offices and in the offices of their assistants, for the information of the public, copies of their respective tariffs, certified to by their signatures and by that of the Aide to the Governor, correcting errors and omissions when discovered.

9. All laws or parts of laws inconsistent with the provisions of this order are hereby abrogated.

SEATON SCHROEDER, U.S.N.
Governor.

In succeeding months other changes occurred in the tax structure. By the fall of 1901 there had been erected by the government on public land near the sea an abattoir in which slaughtering was regulated under payment of license fees and a public market from which rent was obtained for the stalls which were auctioned off. More important than the revenue, however, was the hygienic aspect, of these installations for they were intended to serve as object lessons in the proper handling of meat and food. The old poll tax (Impuesta Provincial) and the labor tax (Prestacion Personal) were abolished by General Order No. 38 of December 24, 1901 in favor of a personal tax of twelve pesos per year to be paid by all males between eighteen and sixty years, except most of the officials and persons on active military service. Persons failing to pay the personal tax were required to labor on public works when called on to do so by the chief of public works or his representatives, the cabezas de barangay, tenientes, and gobernadorcillos.

Another old imposition, the industrial tax, was abolished on April 1, 1902 (General Order No. 39, February 25, 1902). A variety of provisions was contained in General Order No. 41 of March 26, 1902 as follows: the gun license was placed at two pesos a year; the repairing of houses and other buildings was declared free from tax; all fish-weir licenses were set at two pesos a year; permission to erect fish-weirs was to be requested from the mayor of the district, but no restrictions were placed upon fishing by means of hand implements.

In regard to the state of the treasury for the fiscal year 1901 the following figures were presented in the first annual report of Governor Schroeder:

balance in the treasury July 1, 1900 (Mex.)	10,426.90
received from all sources during the year	53,356.73
	63,783.63
expended for all purposes during the year	41,771.63
unappropriated balance June 30, 1901	22,012.00

The balance represented a gain of $11,585.10 during the year despite the hurricane.

For the fiscal year 1902 somewhat more detailed figures were given:

balance in the treasury on July 1, 1901		22,011.90
receipts during the year	(custom house	14,681.61
	(personal tax	13,652.25
	(land tax	3,302.32
	(all other sources	13,016.01
		66,664.09
expended for all purposes during the year		57,776.95
unappropriated balance in treasury, June 30, 1902		8,887.14

The much smaller balance was to be explained, reported the governor, by the unexpected expense for the leper colony and the decrease of $10,842.39 in import duties as compared with the year 1901. The poverty existing among the people as a result of the hurricane was responsible for a decrease in imports and a corresponding decrease in import duties. The burden of the taxes amounting to $44,000 gold during the two fiscal years was born cheerfully by the people although a considerable portion of them were direct. The ordinary expenses of the government had increased because it had been necessary to raise salaries of the government employees on account of the higher cost of living caused by the import duties and the American occupation. The hurricane had obliged the government to expend over 9,000 pesos for food to relieve the starving portions of the population, and 3,000 pesos had been contributed in all to the building of the civil hospital at Agana. The small balance in the treasury forced a curtailment of expenditures during the latter part of 1902. Despite all that the government could do the supply of funds from taxes was precarious, and several times during the administration the treasury was empty.

Feeling that the United States Government should pay a portion of some of the expenses of the island government because they resulted from American occupation such as instruction in English; or chiefly benefited the naval station, for instance, the Piti-Agana road; the governor submitted an estimate for an appropriation by Congress in July 1902. Money was asked for the following items: three or more American school teachers $2,400; salary of the judge of first instance $2,400; construction, repair, and maintenance of roads and bridges $6,000; and a dam and reservoir in the Pigo River valley and water supply to Agana $32,000. Congress, which during these years showed a curious indifference to the affairs of Guam, while it succored the Philippines, and Puerto Rico, appropriated nothing.

During 1900 it became known to the Navy Department for the first time that on May 3, 1899 an executive order relating to the collection of the customs in Guam had been signed by the President and promulgated two days later by the War Department. By this order Guam was made subordinate to the Philippines customs district, and an army officer was to be assigned as collector of customs of the island. Since the Navy Department had previously been given control of Guam, such an arrangement would obviously not have worked, had an attempt been made to execute it,

for the Navy was running the show there. To correct the inconsistencies between this order and that of February 1, 1900 regarding the collection of tariff duties in Guam, a new executive order prepared by the Navy Department was issued on December 14, 1900. It authorized the naval officer in command of the island of Guam to act as collector of customs with power to appoint a deputy whenever necessary, and it directed that any authority that had been exercised by him in regard to the collection of customs be approved as though provided for in the order of February 1, 1900. The order had little effect on the actual situation on the island since it merely recognized existing conditions.

The experience of the department and the governors with the accounts of the island government led to the institution of a new system of accountability in 1902. Governor Schroeder wrote the Assistant Secretary on this subject on July 12, 1901, pointing out that a much simpler system would be possible than in the Philippines, and recommending that funds appropriated by Congress be deposited in the treasury of Guam instead of being disbursed through the Navy pay office as was then ordered. The Bureau of Supplies and Accounts revised suggestions made by the governor for changes to be made in the rules and regulations of the War Department for the Philippines in order to fit them for use in Guam, and prepared a draft of a promulgating order and a set of rules and instructions, which were forwarded by Secretary Long to President Roosevelt and signed by him on November 14, 1901. The Rules and Instruction Relative to the Accounting System of the Naval Government by the United States in the Island of Guam published by the Navy Department in 1901, contained the executive order authorizing the governor to appoint an auditor, a chief clerk, and a treasurer of the island and the rules and regulations under which they were to function. The auditor was to receive and audit all of the accounts of the island; the chief clerk was to perform such duties in connection with the accounting system as might be prescribed; and the treasurer was "to receive and keep all the moneys arising from the revenues of the island and disburse the same only upon warrants issued by the Governor". An annual report of the financial condition of the government was to be submitted by the governor to the Assistant Secretary of the Navy. With Pedro Duarte as auditor the new system began functioning on April 1, 1902, pursuant to General Order No. 40, March 4, 1902. The governor reported in the following July that it promised to be successful in accomplishing the object desired, which was evidently a more regular system of accounting.

The economic condition of the island is revealed in statistics concerning its commerce for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1902. The exports amounted to $35,349.83 (gold) and consisted almost entirely of Mexican money, the island not having recovered sufficiently from the hurricane of 1900 to have copra, cocoa, and coffee for export. Of the imports of $35,165.53 (gold), $15,598 were in goods from the United States, principally flour, cotton cloth, iron and steel, leather and leather goods, meat, dairy products, sugar, soap, vegetables, and wood. The chief imports from Japan, which amounted in all to $13,887, were cotton cloth, other cloth, rice, iron and steel, soap, sugar, tobacco, and wood. Over $5,000 worth of goods came from the Philippines. Although part of the imports were consumed by Americans, it is evident that the economic consequences of hurricanes of the disastrous variety were something to reckon with.

A census taken on September 1, 1901 disclosed a population of 9,676, including 4,566 males and 5,110 females. Of the total 14 were citizens of the United States, 9,630 citizens of Guam, and the remainder aliens as follows: 14 Spanish, 2 Italians, 13 Japanese, and 3 Chinese. The census did not include the naval personnel on the island and their families nor civil employees of the naval station from the United States. The information acquired in the census was useful to the island government in collecting taxes.

Until 1901 Guam had an independent postal establishment under the governor as postmaster. The United States Post Office Department furnished postage stamps which were overprinted "Guam" and received in payment only the cost of manufacturing the stamps, the proceeds from their sale going into the island treasury. Two shipments of these stamps were supplied to the island, the first in May 1899 containing stamps with a face value of $950 and the second in November 1899 with a face value of $10,700, the cost of manufacturing both lots being $12.92. As the quantity of these stamps issued for Guam was much smaller than those furnished other island possessions, the Guam overprinted stamps were sought after in the United States by stamp dealers and collectors, thus making a sizable source of revenue for the island treasury. But when the Post Office

Department received a request in March 1901 for a further supply of the stamps, it declined to furnish them on the ground that by doing so the stamps then held in the United States would be decreased in value and would be used for mailing purposes thus depriving the Post Office Department of revenue, and suggested the appointment of a postmaster in Guam to handle mail in the ordinary way. Consequently orders were sent to Governor Schroeder late that month directing him to appoint a postmaster and pending such appointment to act himself as postal agent. Within a short time Atanasio Taitano Perez was designated as postmaster, and the island lost a source of income.

After bearing with the Caroline Islanders for a half a year, Governor Schroeder deported them. Some 600 of these people had been brought into the island forty years before on a labor contract, but their number had decreased to 96 during the intervening years. Governor Leary had forbade their appearing in public in their customary nude condition, requiring them to provide themselves with suitable conventional wearing apparel (General Order No. 21, June 11, 1900). This order was not enforced by Governor Schroeder, who contented himself with confining them to their barrio. They were a source of embarrassment, for visitors to the island rushed out to the Caroline Islanders' village to secure photographs of them and upon returning to the United States represented the subjects as Guam ladies, much to the chagrin of the real Chamorros, who were described by the governor as "decent, modest, self-respecting, and always neatly dressed." Coming to regard the Carolinos as a "very low order of human animal living from hand to mouth and in a state of nudity," Governor Schroeder deported them in January 1901 to join a colony of their fellows on Saipan, the government of which was glad to get them to put them to compulsory work.

The United States exploited neither the people nor the resources of Guam. Although more taxes were imposed and more revenue was raised by the island government than during the Spanish dominion, the moneys obtained were expended for the benefit of the island itself. At the beginning Americans were actually discouraged from going to Guam because of the primitive conditions there. An agent of the Western Commercial Company of San Francisco arrived in October 1899, however, to investigate business possibilities on the island. This man, named Stimpson, was still on hand in the following summer and in possession of a fine team of horses. The company applied for a grant of land known as the "Swamp" in order to drain and cultivate it, and the governor had the tract surveyed. Writing to the department on August 27, 1900, Schroeder expressed a determination not to allow the introduction of contract laborers by this company as this would bring in an objectionable class of Chinese and would make the Chamorros less willing to work. After the hurricane of November 13, 1900, this company was given a contract to construct a bridge over the Pigo River on the road from Agana to Piti. It was still operating in the island early in the following year. What activities the few Americans on the island at the time of the census were engaged in has not been ascertained, except in the cases of Stimpson and Mrs. Rumberg, the school teacher. A number of the enlisted artificers brought out on the Yosemite obtained discharges while still on the island and went to work at their trades, receiving better pay than they had while in the service.

A big wind that began blowing on Guam on November 13, 1900 developed into the severest hurricane that had struck the island for years. If it had come at night instead of in the day time, the loss of life would have been much greater than the thirty-four deaths among the natives and the five among the crew of the Yosemite, which was driven to sea and lost. The shutters of the Government House were blown in, its galvanized roof carried away to the hill in the rear, causing everything within to be ruined, as the gale was accompanied by a drenching rain. The other government buildings were unroofed and otherwise damaged. Sucked up by atmospheric pressure, the sea rose and flooded the capital as far as the plaza. In Agana and the other towns nearly all of the houses, except those built of coral masonry, were destroyed. Most of the deaths occurred at Ynarajan where a huge wall of water came in from the sea and overwhelmed the town. The people were deprived of more than their shelter, for the high wind blew down coconut and breadfruit trees, and ruined growing crops. So great was the injury to the coconut trees that no copra was exported for several years. Much damage was suffered by the roads and bridges, the road between Agana and Piti running close to the sea was nearly wiped out; telephone poles were downed. The governor was accused in newspaper accounts of taking refuge in the cellar of the



MAIN STREET, AGANA

Palace, but he denied this in a letter to the Assistant Secretary, stating that there was no cellar. Like the marines and seamen stationed on the island, he was out in the storm engaged in rescue work.

The hurricane amounted to a disaster and necessitated taking immediate relief measures. In order to prevent a rise in the prices of food because of the scarcity, the governor. commandeered the food in the stores and rationed it to those unable to buy. The collier Justin, which had taken the place of the Brutus, was sent to Manila with tidings of the hurricane, and returned with some naval provisions, part of which proved unfit for use. By order of Rear Admiral George C. Remey, the commander-in-chief of the Asiatic Station, the U.S.S. Newark went to Guam, investigated conditions there in the early part of December, and reported that it could easily be seen that general destruction had been worked by the storm. The U.S.S. Arethusa was sent there with additional supplies upon the orders of the Navy Department, which somewhat later (January 9, 1901) directed the commander-in-chief of the Asiatic Station to supply the governor with necessary provisions from any in available naval stores. By mid-January provisions valued at $4500 gold bought by the island treasury had been distributed, much of it going to the hard hit southern towns of Ynarajan, Merizo, Umata, and Agat, places where the Navy was not spending money as at Agana. The cost of food relief reached a total of nearly $10,000, part of which was apparently borne by the Navy Department. In a visit by carabao to the towns on the western and southern coasts during January 1901 the governor found that much progress had been made in rebuilding them although operations had been hampered by the lack of roofing material. The residents of Pago, however, as the governor learned in a trip to the east coast in March, instead of reconstructing their ruined homes removed to the neighboring heights or to Agana.

Before the island had recovered from the hurricane of 1900, it was visited on September 22, 1902 by a destructive earthquake, causing damages estimated by the governor at $23,000 for the naval station and $22,000 for the insular public buildings. Although this was the severest catastrophe of this sort of which there was any memory, nobody was killed and few were injured. In Agana, where a large part of the masonry houses were destroyed the damage to private property was estimated at $100,000; the courthouse and jail were slightly damaged, the two school buildings were so badly hit as to necessitate condemnation. The Government House was saved by its thick walls, but the old church after standing for over two centuries and a quarter losts its bell tower and one wall. Two bridges between the capital and Piti were destroyed. At the latter place the custom house was damaged beyond repair. Destruction was also extensive in other districts. The lessons learned in the hurricane and the earthquake resulted in the issuance of building regulations to be followed in new construction in order to make safer buildings. (General Order No. 46, October 30, 1902). Any country or administration attempting to govern the island of Guam, which is in an area where typhoons originate, and which is of volcanic origin and thereby likely to be subject to earthquakes, must take into consideration the effect which the recurrence of these phenomena will have upon the government's economy.

During Governor Schroeder's administration some changes occurred in the administrative organization of the island government. At its inception the governor took over the positions which had been filled by his predecessor, and his aide, Ensign Pressey assumed those which had been held by Lieutenant Safford. Besides the positions of registrar, auditor, judge of first instance, and judge of the criminal court, Pressey was for a while, at least, the collector of taxes. In 1901, however, the position of registrar of lands, deeds, and titles was held by an official who was also functioning as promoter fiscal and treasurer. In the next year Pressey was also relieved of the auditorship by Pedro Duarte, whose appointment has already been referred to. In compliance with the executive order of November 14, 1901, according to which the auditor was appointed, appointments were presumably made of a treasurer and a chief clerk. An "Official List" of March 1, 1903 shows both of these positions to be filled. Other new positions, the origins of which have already been mentioned, were registrar of the civil register, filled on March 1, 1903 by Lt. Raymond Stone, and that of postmaster filled on the same date by Pedro Duarte, in addition to his authorship and the position of assistant in the department of public works. At the governor's request he was furnished with a civil engineer, a post which was filled in the spring of 1901 by Civil Engineer Leonard M. Cox, U.S.N. This officer was made chief of public works, on July 1, 1901 in place of the commandant of the marines. By the order of December 1901 relating to the personal tax, the chief of public works not only had charge of the labor that was to be performed on public works but

was also to decide questions arising in connection with the collection of the tax. The Medical Department became the Department of Health, Charities, etc. and was given charge of the civil hospital and the leper colony. After a successful inauguration of a school system, the Department of Education was suspended in the latter part of 1902, for want of funds. The Marine Department was apparently abolished as unnecessary and to save money. By General Order No. 25 of September 5, 1900, all persons employed by the government were required to take an oath of allegiance.

Governor Schroeder was particularly interested in the Department of Justice of which he was the head as the judge of the Supreme Court. In an effort to clear the crowded docket of the court of first instance, the department was expanded by adding an attorney general (promoter fiscal), and two court constables. All ecclesiastical jurisdiction and tribunals and all laws giving clergyment special privileges were abolished by General Order No. 29, May 1, 1901, which gave the court of first instance cognizance of all cases which had come before ecclesiastical tribunals, except cases coming more properly before some other civil or military tribunal or authority. The civil courts were also given jurisdiction over all proceedings held in real estate surveys and the establishment of land marks (General Order No. 44, August 6, 1902). When the government was interested in such cases, its Office of Public Prosecutor (Ministerio fiscal), as its legal representative, was to be a party thereto. The Public Prosecutor, evidently a new positon, was given by the law setting up building regulations the duty of applying at the request of the Chief of Public Works for an injunction against dangerous property. Declaring that a document purporting to have originated in territory under the jurisdiction of the United States and bearing the seal of a notary public or of a court of justice was to be regarded as authentic, General Order No. 48 of January 17, 1903, authorized the judge or clerk of the court of first instance to administer oaths and take acknowledgments for a fee of $.75 Mexican and to issue copies of judicial proceedings for a fee of $1.50 Mexican. A question having arisen as to the status of the Supreme Court, the governor by General Order No. 45, August 12, 1902, confirmed its existence and its competence to handle all matters which by law are in the jurisdiction of the territorial courts of second instance, which was evidently the Spanish court to which it corresponded.

Because the court of first instance handled most of the judicial cases on the island, and because as competent an officer as Pressey might not be available to succeed him, Governor Schroeder wanted to obtain a civilian to take his place. Early in 1901 he wrote the department asking if it could pay the salary of a civilian judge and if so could it find a person to fill the position. More than a year later when it appeared that Pressey would be going home, he cabled the department from Cavite to find a lawyer familiar with the Spanish language and Spanish procedure and acclimated to the tropics for a salary of $3000, which would be paid by the insular treasury. The Assistant Secretary Charles H. Darling attempted to secure a man in Puerto Rico but did not succeed, the governor of that island reporting that all competent persons declined. A Filipino was finally given the judgeship at a salary of $200 per month.

The question of an appeal from the courts of Guam arose in 1902 in connection with a murder case. Juan de la Cruz Perez was convicted of the murder of Vicente Aguon Quintanilla by the court of first instance in 1901 and sentenced to death in accordance with the penal code of the Philippines, the sentence being sustained and confirmed by the Supreme Court of which the governor was judge. The Spanish law required that all death sentences be appealed to the court of cassation in Manila, but the jurisdiction of the Tribunal Supremo of Madrid had ceased with the American occupation, and, since no United States court had been given jurisdiction, the island judiciary was left in something of a quandary. In referring the case to the Assistant Secretary in June 1902 for a decision as to the law involved, the governor, stating that the man was in jail awaiting sentence and that proceedings in the case were suspended, pointed out that the use by him of the pardoning power to commute the sentence to the next highest punishment authorized by the code would be open to the charge of expediency and cause a portion of the community to feel that the law was not being carried out in letter and spirit. The matter was referred by the department to the Office of the Judge Advocate General, which opined that since Congress had not provided the island with a civil government with a judiciary, it would be appropriate and proper for the governor to pardon the man, as the case would thus be kept open for a future appeal to such higher courts as Congress might give jurisdiction. Governor Sewell, Commander Schroeder's successor, reported in March 1903 that he had commuted the sentence to life imprisonment, a step which was approved by the department.

The Spanish codes which furnished the basic laws of the island of Guam were referred to by Governor Schroeder as "models of equity and well codified," but since they had been prepared for all Spanish possessions or for the Philippines they were cumbersome when applied to tiny Guam, and the laws determining procedure were vexatious. Moreover, he believed that the practice of issuing general orders incited doubt in the minds of the people as to the security of the laws under which they held property, although he had considered proposed laws with care and had consulted competent persons concerning them. Consequently he recommended in November 1901 that a commission be appointed to visit the island, study conditions there, and prepare a code of laws for submission to Congress. The people would not feel a comfortable sense of security, however, until Congress established a government and defined its powers. The Assistant Secretary replied, in January 1902, that the department did not consider it necessary to appoint a commission, believing that the judge who was going to be hired would be able to administer the law without its assistance. The governor did not change his mind and repeated the recommendation in July.

Governor Schroeder's term, at his request, was allowed to run past the end of fiscal year 1902 in order to give him an opportunity to get the new system of accountability recently installed in smooth working order before relinquishing the office. His successor, Comdr. William E. Sewell, reached the island on January 29, 1903 and acceded to the governorship on February 6. Schroeder left for the United States on the U.S.S. Solace on the 9th with Lieutenant Cox. After serving for a time as Chief Intelligence Officer, he became commander of the 4th Division of the Atlantic Fleet, and while accompanying the fleet on its voyage around the world was given the rank of rear admiral. He commanded the Atlantic Fleet during 1909-1911, being retired in the latter year, but upon the outbreak of World War I he was recalled and made Hydrographer; five years later he died. Stationed in Washington after his return from Guam, Schroeder was able to secure a small appropriation for Guam, the first regular appropriation evidently to be given to that island by Congress. He also got Civil Engineer Leonard M. Cox to prepare a report on Guam, which was published by the Navy Department in 1905. The first descriptive work published by the Navy Department on the island of Guam, this publication has been reedited and republished a number of times since.

The naval government of Guam was conducted for the benefit of its inhabitants. The American officials were conscientious men interested in promoting the welfare of the natives. This is evident from their acts, and it is vouched for by the Reverend Francis M. Price, who during several years' residence on the island, never knew of a single case of injustice. They gave the islanders a demonstration of honesty among public officials, surprising them by declining to accept a percentage of their small wages as had been the custom. There is little doubt that the condition of the people was improved. If some of the laws were distasteful to them, they were generally beneficial to them although they might not have realized it. The change from the Spanish to the American jurisdiction was made easier by the retention of the Spanish laws and by their gradual modification as circumstances required. Although Congress failed to do so, the governors by their acts introduced some of the principles of the American constitution into the life of the island, thus bringing them at least an acquaintance with the American way of life. Public improvements were extended, and others were planned. The health of the natives was greatly bettered by the medical care afforded by the navy doctors, whose sanitary measures also contributed to the public health. In everything the American colony served as the model; Governor Schroeder's family consisting of wife and daughter accomplished an amount of good. Better livings came to some people by being on the government pay roll, but the men so employed were taken away from agriculture and the production of the island thereby suffered, causing an increase in the importation of canned goods. There remained room for improvement in social conditions, for gambling and drinking persisted to some extent, and little attempt was made to control social vices.

Although exhibiting a friendly and appreciative attitude towards the American government, the islanders desired the establishment of a civil government in which they themselves would have a voice. A petition signed by thirty-two of the leading persons on the island addressed to Congress was forwarded by Governor Schroeder in December 1901 with his approval and recommendation. It was proposed in the petition that Congress send a commission to the island, to study the situation, and to present to Congress measures designed to establish a permanent government. The Senate in 1903 passed a bill for a civil government in Guam, but the House never got beyond burying the petition in a House document.

Pedro Duarte was a man without a country. Resigning his commission in the Spanish army after the American occupation of Guam, he took up his residence on the island, and when taken into the employ of the American government, he renounced his Spanish citizenship. In applying for American citizenship, however, he learned that in order to get it he would have to make a trip to San Francisco, which he could not afford to do. He then presented the matter to Governor Schroeder, who forwarded his letter to the department for whatever action was possible, recommending legislation on the subject. The governor later wrote the Assistant Secretary that there were a number of persons permanently domiciled in the island who desired American citizenship. However, the treaty with Spain had stipulated that the civil rights and political status of the inhabitants would be determined by Congress, and Congress not having acted, United States citizenship could not be conferred in Guam. So the people of Guam were citizens of Guam, which was United States territory, but not citizens of the United States.

In his report on the island of Guam Civil Engineer Leonard M. Cox stated that the islanders looked to the United States Government for the following: (1) establishment of a civil form of government with a civil governor possessing powers limited to enforcing laws and to executive acts now performed by governors of territories, (2) a code of laws adapted to the circumstances, (3) revision of the judiciary and the right to appeal in capital cases to a higher American court, (4) extension of the privileges of citizenship without necessity of extended voyage and residence in the United States, (5) annual appropriation for the maintenance of schools, (6) appropriation for subsidizing steamship communication between Guam and Manila, (7) establishment by the Department of Agriculture of a well equipped experimental station, (8) appropriation for building roads connecting the villages of the island, (9) appropriation for the purpose of installing water supply and sewer system for the city of Agana, (10) manual training school in Agana with suitable library. Nearly all of these aims had been reported to the Navy Department by officers connected with the affairs of Guam with the results already noted.

CHAPTER VI

PORT, COMMUNICATIONS, AND STATION SHIP

A port organization was maintained at San Luis d'Apra because certain functions connected with shipping had to be performed by public officials. The Spanish port organization consisted, in June 1898, of Lt. Francisco Garcia Gutierrez, Spanish Navy, captain of the port; Surgeon José Romero Aguilar, Spanish Army, health officer; and Henry Mellinchamp, an ex-whaler born in the Bonin Islands, pilot. The pilot received whatever fees the captains of ships were willing to give him, according to Lieutenant Cottman, who stated further that the harbor could be entered by any one who had once done it, and that it would be plain sailing after the Luminan Reef and the Catalan Bank were marked. The captain of the port had an office in a stone building at Piti, which was the headquarters for his men. The foregoing organization was continued by the American government of the island, Mellinchamp being continued as pilot, Assistant Surgeon Mack V. Stone acting as health or quarantine officer from August 1899, and William Coe being designated as captain of the port. Coe also served as deputy collector of customs under the governor as collector. Because the navigation was simple and the launch that would have to be used to carry the pilot to the ship could be more usefully employed, Governor Schroeder discontinued the services of the pilot. The captain of the port apparently carried on, for the post was occupied on March 1, 1903 by Joaquin Martinez, who was also deputy collector of customs at that time, thus continuing the dual capacity filled by William Coe. The arrival of ships in the port was made known to the people in the capital by raising a flag on the signal station on the hill behind the capital, but ships could often be seen from Agana coasting down to San Luis d'Apra.

Ships entering the harbor were not allowed to communicate with the shore until the health officer, who was the naval surgeon on the station ship, had boarded, investigated the health of the ships' personnel, and granted a pratique. This was important, for the population of the island had suffered greatly from scourges brought there by diseased ships. An epidemic of whooping cough introduced in 1898, after the American capture, had resulted in fatalities, and the Spanish steamer El Cano brought a light epidemic of infantile paralysis in 1899. Hence the navy doctor from the Yosemite or the Brutus steadfastly boarded all ships arriving in port. There was so much disease on the island already that the governors were inclined to exercise special care to prevent the entrance of other afflictions. Governor Leary directed early in 1900 that all passengers arriving from Manila and Honolulu, where there was bubonic plague, be quarantined for a safe period before being allowed to land. The army transport Sherman had been quarantined late in the preceding year because of measles on board. Subsequent experiences by Governor Schroeder with the transports caused him to suggest that the War Department be requested to direct the surgeons on board them to be correctly informed about infectious diseases in order that accurate statements could be given to quarantine officers, and a circular was accordingly issued by that department.

The duties of the port officials were not onerous because shipping in the port of San Luis d'Apra was not extensive. Naval vessels occasionally came in with stores, personnel, or coal, and others stopped to obtain coal from the Brutus or the Justin or to leave mail. Although it had been obtained for use as a coaling station, Guam was not regularly used for that purpose by the naval vessels and the army transports steaming between the west coast of the United States and the Philippines. The naval transport Solace in July 1899 arrived on the first of numerous visits to the island on trips between San Francisco and the Philippines where the Navy maintained a naval station at Cavite as a base for the Asiatic Fleet. The Solace usually stopped on both the westward and the eastward journeys, landing mail and passengers, taking the same away, and sometimes coaling. This was the only regular communication supplied by the Navy with the United States and the Philippines and was of much importance to the island. American merchant ships were infrequent visitors to the island, but now and then a small schooner or brig arrived. The Bessie E. Stevens of San Francisco came in, in April 1899, to have a look at the island. Other ships touching there were John D. Spreckles (1900, 1901, 1903) Tulenkun (1901), Alice Knowles (1900), Maksuotoff (1902), Andrew Hicks (1900), and Gay Head (1902). More regular were several Japanese trading schooners, arriving at intervals of several months, including the Jun Ho Maru, Chomei Maru, Tora Maru, and Musashi Maru, while others paid single visits. A few Chinese and

British vessels seem to complete the roll of entries.

The navigation of the harbor of San Luis d'Apra was given early attention. The Yosemite brought surveying instruments and certain aids to navigation, such as beacons and buoys, and probably picked up at Cavite the surveying data collected by the Bennington. Immediately after the arrival of the Yosemite, in August 1899, officers and men attached to that ship and to the Brutus undertook a survey of the harbor, which was completed about the end of the year, resulting in the publication of a chart of the harbor by the Hydrographic Office in 1900. The information obtained enabled proper placing of the aids to navigation by means of which vessels could enter the harbor without pilotage. An observatory constructed on Fort Santa Cruz Island with tide gauges, transit instrument, tripod, and hydrographic signals was destroyed in the hurricane of November 13, 1900. During the autumn of 1899 working parties from the Brutus under Lt. Newton A. McCully worked on the channel running from the anchorage to the landing at Piti, deepening the channel and staking it out in order that lighters discharging stores and supplies for the naval station could reach the landing with the greatest speed possible. In 1903 some range beacons were set out to indicate the dangers of the harbor and thus enable vessels to maneuver with greater safety.

To obtain needed provisions and supplies and more regular mail, it was necessary to arrange for additional means of communication with the United States. The army transports plying between San Francisco and the Philippines afforded a method already in operation under government control, so in May 1900 arrangements were made between the Navy Department and the War Department by which the transports were to stop at Guam on their monthly trips to Manila. This service was soon inaugurated, and in the years following the health officer boarded the following transports: Buford, Californian, Hancock, Indiana, Kilpatrick, Logan, Lawton, Meade, Oopack, Rosecrans, Sheridan, Sherman, Siam, and Thomas. Some of these ships touched at Guam several times during the three years 1900-1902. The transports stopped only on the westward journey, for the homeward trip was made via Chinese and Japanese waters over the great circle route, consequently mail sent on them had to go first to Manila, and mail sent from Manila had to go to the United States before reaching Guam. Upon occasions when the transports failed to stop it meant a restricted diet for the marines. Naval personnel were sometimes carried as passengers on the transports, but they were often so crowded because of the Philippine insurrection that there was no room. Transportation to the outside was even more difficult for islanders desiring to travel, for the available space on the government vessels was usually taken up by naval and military personnel and other means of conveyance were almost entirely lacking.

As there was no pier in the harbor of San Luis d'Apra at which ships could be docked, cargoes for Guam had to be discharged at their anchorages into lighters and small boats, which then had to be laboriously worked through the tortuous channel to Piti. This difficult, slow, and sometimes dangerous operation made it impossible to get large cargoes off in a hurry, so the practice was adopted of having the station ship assist by taking cargo onto its deck for subsequent unloading. However, a station ship or collier was not always available, and on such occasions vessels being discharged were delayed in their departure. The Navy Department received several complaints from the War Department that transports were held up at Guam by not being discharged promptly. When this was the case, the reasons mentioned were usually to blame. In the case of the U.S.A.T. Meade, however, there were some other reasons, for this transport arrived with a disabled steering gear, which prevented it from entering the harbor until the day after its arrival in the offing, and when the unloading began it was found that part of the cargo for Guam was stowed beneath other cargo which consequently had to be broken out first. At the end of 1902 the boats available for unloading cargo were three large lighters, two large cutters, three 7-ton sampans, and two steam launches; the cutters were used for the more rapid work such as taking off fresh meat. Governor Schroeder reported that neither larger craft nor more of them could be used. The boats were manned by eighteen enlisted seamen recruited from among the natives. In April 1903 quarters requested by Governor Schroeder were completed for these men at Piti in order that the beachmaster could keep them under control. An earlier practice had been to hire native laborers to handle cargo, but this was apparently given up in favor of enlisting them. On more than one occasion, so rough was the ocean swell in the harbor, the Brutus was damaged in coaling vessels in the harbor.



U. S. S. YOSEMITE, STATION SHIP, GUAM

At the time of the American acquisition of the Hawaiian Islands, Guam, and the Philippines only the last of these islands could be reached by a cable, which passed through many foreign countries. A recommendation for the establishment of cable communication with Hawaii, Guam, and the Philippines was made to Congress by President McKinley on February 10, 1899. In the course of a survey to locate a route for a trans-Pacific submarine cable, the U.S.S. Nero in the same year discovered a short distance east of Guam an abyss in the ocean extending to a depth of almost six miles, deeper than any then known. The name "Nero Deep" was given to this newly discovered abyss. During this survey the ship stopped at Guam in July, September, and again in November, making between the last two stops a survey for a cable from Guam to Yokohama. Utilized also to take temperatures and samples of the ocean bottom, the deep sea sounding of the Nero cost over $106,000. Late in 1902 an engineer of the Commercial Pacific Cable Company, which was arranging to lay the cable after accepting the government's conditions as to rates and the surrender of the cable in time of war, visited Midway Island and Guam to select sites for cable stations. Permission to use a site recommended by him near Sumay was granted by the Navy Department, on March 14, 1903, on condition that the department have the right to terminate the license, that the company and its employees follow all laws, regulations, and orders issued by the authorities, that the government be put to no expense, and that the company pay the government for the privilege $1 per year. The survey charts prepared by the Navy Department were turned over to the company, thus saving time in the laying of the cable. Communication was opened with Manila on June 3 and with San Francisco via Honolulu, to which the cable had been completed late in 1902, on July 5. The trans-Pacific cable not only opened a speedy means of communication with the new possessions in the Pacific but also furnished in connection with other lines communication around the world.

After its arrival at the port of San Luis d'Apra on August 7, 1899, the Yosemite remained there as station ship, being anchored two miles from Piti near Cabras Island. There was much employment aboard and ashore for its crew, which during 1900 averaged 227 men; the ship supplied living quarters for these men as well as for the marine guard, which remained attached to it. The early occupations of the ship's personnel were assisting in the survey of the harbor, unloading supplies and stores for the naval station, repairing the public buildings at Agana, and making new installations there. The crew kept up not only the machinery of the Yosemite, which included a distilling plant and an ice plant, but also that of the Brutus. During this period all of the machine work of the island was done in the shop on the Yosemite, which had been specially fitted up in the United States. Other chores included discharging stores from other ships for the naval station, coaling them from the Brutus, and transferring coal from that ship to Piti for use at Agana. The Yosemite also served as a storeship for the naval station where facilities were then meager. The officers heading the various departments in the ship--engineering, equipment, construction and repair, etc.--were also in charge of the same departments on the Brutus after the detachment of its officers, and of those at the naval station. Assistant Surgeon Stone was responsible for the health of the personnel of the two ships, in addition to serving as health officer of the port, and physician for the natives in its neighborhood. When the need arose, the Yosemite rendered assistance to vessels in distress in the harbor. The commanding officer of the ship was the governor, who was thus in a position to use its personnel to the best advantage.

The long rest of the Yosemite in the harbor of San Luis d'Apra came to an end on April 11, 1900, when under the command of Capt. George E. Ide, it went to Japan for an overhauling and dry-docking. At Yokohama for three weeks after April 24, mechanics, machinists, and electricians from the Yokohama Engine and Iron Works worked on board the Yosemite, and a gang of three or four men and fifty boys spent a number of days scaling the boilers. At that port engineer and medical supplies were taken on board, and a number of men were exchanged with the U.S.S. Bennington and the U.S.S. Concord. The ship proceeded down the harbor to Uraga on May 16 where on the afternoon of the next day it entered dry dock no. 1 of the Uraga Dock Company, Limited, to have its bottom scraped and painted. A board of officers composed of Lts. Albert Moritz and B. B. Bierer, and Ensign A. W. Pressey made an inspection of the Yosemite's bottom at this time and reported that the fouling during the stay in tropical waters had not been bad although barnacles and an incipient growth of sponge had almost entirely closed strainers and magazine flood cocks and the bottom was more or less coated with grass, barnacles and sponge. The grass extended around the ship at the water line; the barnacles extended all around just below this for a distance of eight feet, and at the turn of the bilge there was a very light growth

of barnacles; and near the keel was a light growth of sponge. The condition of the paint was good, large patches of anti-fouling paint and all the protective or anti-corrosive paint remaining, except near the water line where little or no paint was left. Pitting or corrosion existed at some places and scaling at others. Although the vessel had been so long idle, it had travelled 14,680 miles since its previous docking at the Norfolk Navy Yard in January-February 1899. By the morning of May 21, the bottom of the ship had been scraped and painted with three coats of Hartman's Rahtjen's Improved Composition for ship's bottom, marked "The Red Hand Brand, Priming First Coating, No. 1" and "The Red Hand Brand, No. 3, Last Coating." After being hauled out of the dry dock, the ship returned to Yokohama where additional work was done and more supplies taken on. Here on May 30 Commander Seaton Schroeder took over command of the ship from Lt. Augustus N. Mayer who had relieved Captain Ide on May 5. The Yosemite proceeded five days later to Nagasaki to obtain coal, which proved to be so unsatisfactory because of its tendency to get hot and burn in the confinement of the hold that the commander did not again recommend its purchase although it was cheaper than Pocahontas, Cardiff, Nixon's and other kinds of coal. Sailing for Manila on June 10, the Yosemite took on there more coal and stores and the Guam ice machine in 107 packages and pieces. After a six day passage, the Yosemite was back in the harbor at Guam, receiving on the day of its arrival a visit from Governor Leary. The crew was busy for some days thereafter in unloading the ice machine and stores for the naval station and the Brutus.

The Yosemite left on a voyage to Manila on August 2, 1900, after embarking as passengers Captain Leary, Lieutenant Safford, Lt. J. W. Broatch, Mr. A. C. Seale, and Ah Tong. The transport on which the ex-governor had intended to depart had passed the island without stopping, so Governor Schroeder turned over the command of the Yosemite to Lt. Augustus N. Mayer in order to have it take Leary and the other passengers to Manila where other transportation was available. Governor Schroeder detached Lieutenant Moritz and Assistant Surgeon F. M. Furlong and other personnel from duty on the Yosemite prior to its sailing on the principle that if the ship were lacking part of its personnel the commander-in-chief of the Asiatic Station would not be much inclined to order it on some other duty. The trip to Cavite was completed on the 7th, and before leaving for Guam on the 22nd it took on coal and stores and secured Major H. K. White, Mrs. White, and Surgeon F. A. Hessler as passengers.

Stevedoring was the chief occupation of the Yosemite's crew for the next several weeks. Stores were taken on shore from that ship for Agana. Large working parties were then sent to the Brutus in order to discharge its stores and some of its coal before its departure on a trip. Orders for the detachment of the Yosemite for duty as station ship at Cavite were on the way to Guam when the hurricane of November 1900 struck.

As the breezes that followed some showers developed into a gale on November 13, 1900, the ship got ready for heavy weather by firing up, closing up the ports, dropping the starboard anchor, and putting below all movable objects. After a lighter full of coal was taken to shallow water, the cutters were hoisted on board. The steam launch could not be taken on board and was sent to tie up to the lighter, but it and the crew was lost in making the attempt. In the middle of the day a hurricane wind from the north hit the ship; its anchors failed to hold and it was driven onto the reef west of Sumay, tearing a hole in the forward bottom through which water began to pour. An attempt to get a line ashore during a brief lull in the storm by means of a gig life boat failed. A 6-pounder was then used to fire a line ashore, but this also failed. The wind, shifting to the east, drove the ship over the Calalan Bank then covered by high water and out to sea, and, as the crew under the command of Lt. Bion Boyd Bierer valiantly struggled to keep the vessel afloat, it was driven farther to the northwest. The 14th was passed in a continued battle with the elements; the hatches were covered; the carpenter's gang shored up the berth deck with lumber from cargo; and the rest of the crew pumped and baled water. The rudder post having been carried away on the preceding day, an attempt was made to launch a jury rudder, but it fouled the propeller and was lost. Its situation practically hopeless, the ship fired rockets and Very signals, bringing to its aid on the afternoon of the 15th the collier Justin, which having survived the hurricane, had been sent out to look for her. A pair of manila and then a pair of steel hawsers were used in an effort to tow the disabled Yosemite, but all lines parted and it was decided by all officers to abandon the ship since it was in a sinking condition. The ship's personnel and records were transferred on the evening of the same day to the Justin. On the morning of the 16th three tons of silver, such stores and personal effects as could be reached were salvaged. Shortly after opening



U. S. S. BRUTUS, COLLIER STATIONED AT GUAM

the valves of the Yosemite, it sank bow first at 2:45 P.M.; it would have gone down without any help. No blame was attached to the personnel of the ship for its loss, and a Navy Department General Order was issued on February 18, 1901 commending the courage and determination displayed by its officers and men.

When the crew of the Yosemite reached San Luis d'Apra on November 17, 1900, Lieutenants Bierer and Moritz left for Agana to report to the governor on the wrecking of their ship, accompanied by Capt. W. K. Scott of the Justin. On the same day sixty-nine of the crew and ten marines were transferred to the marine barracks at Agana, to which on the next day went forty-nine other sailors and sixteen more marines, and on the latter day twenty men were assigned to the Justin. At the end of the month some of the men and officers took passage on the Solace for Cavite; others including Lieutenants Bierer and Moritz were assigned to the Brutus.

A collier, according to the intention of the Navy Department, was to be kept stationed at the port of San Luis d'Apra until a coaling station could be established on shore. After its departure from that port on February 1, 1899, the Brutus visited Honolulu, San Francisco, Mare Island, San Francisco, Samoa, Honolulu, and reached Guam from the last place on August 13, remaining there as a collier under Lieutenant Cottman. By the use of native laborers from Piti and Sumay, the Brutus was coaled from the Nanshan before the latter's departure for the Philippines. During that fall the Brutus itself furnished coal to the U.S.S. Solace, the U.S. Army hospital ship Relief, and the U.S.S. Nero, which in the first part of November took 1200 tons leaving 1700 on the Brutus. At the end of August 1899, members of the crew of the collier began going ashore to work on the ship's farm on which buildings were soon built to house a couple of men and chickens. How this agricultural venture came out has not been ascertained. Pursuant to orders of the department transmitted through Rear Admiral J. C. Watson, commander-in-chief of the Asiatic Station, Lieutenant Cottman, Lt. Glennie Tarbox, Lt. H. G. Leopold, Lt. N. A. McCully, Ensign D. M. Wood, and Assistant Paymaster C. W. Penrose were detached from the Brutus on October 20 and proceeded two days later on the Relief to Cavite to report to Watson. Another passenger on this ship was a lieutenant of marines; he was a victim of melancholia and jumped overboard during the voyage. The command of the Brutus was transferred at this time to Capt. G. E. Ide of the Yosemite, and the officers in charge of the different departments of the latter ship took charge of the same departments on the former one. The Brutus was placed out of commission on October 24, 1899.

She was placed in commission again on December 24, 1899 under the command of Lt. Comdr. Clifford J. Boush in order to tow the disabled U.S.A.T. Victoria to Manila with a cargo of supplies which Governor Leary felt would be needed for the army's winter campaign. From Manila the collier steamed on January 9 to Nagasaki, Japan where work was done on it in a dock yard. On February 16, a week after its return to Guam, the Brutus was again decommissioned to resume its old function of coal hulk, a capacity in which it shortly received a large quantity of mixed Pocahontas and Cardiff coal from the Scindia, which also supplied the Yosemite and the U.S. Fish Commission steamer Albatross.

From this period until the succeeding fall the life of the Brutus was an unrecorded one, for no log book was kept while it was out of commission. But from other sources it appears that the Brutus almost anticipated the fate of the Yosemite as it was blown upon Luminan Reef in the harbor during a hurricane of May 27-28, 1900, which worked considerable destruction to trees, crops, and buildings on shore although not nearly as much as the more severe storm of the same year. The ship, however, did not suffer serious damage, a subsequent dry-docking showing a number of indentations of from one-half to three and one-half inches deep and a number of loosened rivets in the keel.

The Brutus was ordered to Japan for overhauling and dry-docking in September 1900, leaving under the command of Lieutenant Mayer on the 23rd. The work was done at the same yards of Yokohama and Uraga that had handled the Yosemite earlier in the year, after two weeks at the former place the ship was in the dry dock from October 18 to 22. The board of officers reporting upon the condition of the ship's bottom stated that from its appearance a vessel was not likely to be seriously fouled in the harbor of San Luis d'Apra where the prevalent marine growth was coral. Such fouling as had occurred was slight, and the paint was in fairly good condition, except near the

bilge on the port side and on the keel where the ship had grounded; pitting extended all around the ship near the water line. The composition with which the Yosemite had been painted was used on its bottom, but it was painted on the water line with three coats of boiled oil and white lead colored with minium. Further work was done on the ship at Yokohama, where stores were taken on for the Yosemite, before its departure for Manila on October 26. After receiving coal from the Scindia and commissary stores at Cavite, the Brutus returned to Guam under the command of Lt. William J. Maxwell on December 6, having thus escaped the major hurricane which ended the Yosemite's career.

In compliance with orders from the department the Brutus became at this time the station ship, and its command was assumed on the day of its return by Comdr. Ebenezer S. Prime, who had recently arrived on the Solace. Serving in addition as collier, the Brutus coaled that winter the U.S.S. Newark during its visit there to investigate the damage done by the hurricane and the Solace on its return voyage to the United States. Governor Schroeder was not satisfied with the Brutus and requested that a more suitable ship be provided, but that ship remained. Using Umata as a base, the Brutus in late February and early March 1901 explored the ocean southwest of Guam in an attempt to locate the Galvez Bank, an incorrectly charted shoal dangerous to navigation, to obtain information concerning it for the Hydrographic Office. Numerous soundings were taken but the bank, which is described by the Sailing Directions for the Pacific Islands (1938) as lying fifteen miles from the southwest end of Guam was not located. The warning is given in this publication that care should be observed when in the vicinity of these shoals the positions of which were still uncertain. When the ship returned to Guam, Commander Prime was detached and Governor Schroeder assumed command. Following the transfer of a number of its officers and fifty men to the naval station, the Brutus with Lieutenant Maxwell in command took a final leave on March 28, 1901 on the long voyage westward to the New York Navy Yard where it was decommissioned on August 29.

The collier Justin, which had been purchased during the Spanish-American War, reached Guam on November 6, 1900 with cargo and coal and remained there after the loss of the Yosemite until the return of the Brutus, leaving on December 8 for Manila. Manned by a civilian crew captained by William K. Scott, the Justin became station ship and the collier at San Luis d'Apra to which it returned from Cavite on March 17, 1901, after the departure of the Brutus. It brought in a cargo of lumber for reconstruction of destroyed buildings. Besides supplying coal to the Solace on its stops, it trans-shipped stores and supplies from that ship and army transports in order to expedite their sailing. The Justin was absent from August 14 to September 23, 1901 on a trip to Yokohama for stores, and while taking these on it had to discharge 500 tons of heated coal which was generating gas, only half being reshipped. Five days after its return to the island it was off again to Cavite, where coal was discharged and to Hong Kong where the ship was overhauled during November and early December. With a load of coal received from the S.S. Matilda at Cavite, the Justin was back at Guam on January 8, 1902. During its absence in October 1901 the collier Pompey had brought coal to the station. Among the stores it landed were hay and oats, indicating perhaps a lack of satisfactory fodder on the island. In April a voyage was made to Nagasaki and Yokohama for stores, and in September to Cavite to cable news of the earthquake to the department and for coal, lumber, and stores, and in November to Yokohama and Uraga for overhauling and dry-docking. It remained continuously at Guam from November 28, 1902 until it was detached in March 1903, following the arrival of the U.S.S. Supply.

Not long after the detachment of the Brutus, Governor Schroeder in May 1901 wrote the Assistant Secretary requesting a station ship because occasions would arise for sending a vessel to Yokohama or Manila, when it would be imprudent to send the collier, as some ship might arrive short of coal. He was informed by the department that the Supply, another acquisition of the Spanish-American War, was being fitted out for the station ship at Guam, and again at the end of the year 1901, the governor was told that this ship was still being repaired at the New York Navy Yard and would be completed by the end of the winter. Yet the Supply was not commissioned until August 1, 1902 and did not sail for nearly three months more, carrying as its commanding officer Comdr. William E. Sewell, who was to succeed Schroeder as governor of Guam. After it finally reached there in January 1903, the Supply remained for many years as station ship.

CHAPTER VII

NAVAL STATION

Coincident with the inauguration of the naval government of Guam, there was established at Agana a naval station, whose activities were closely connected with those of the island government, for the governor had charge of the naval station and some of its officers also served as officials of the island government. The naval station was a military garrison instituted for the protection of the island from outside foes and not to police the island itself because for the latter job there already existed the insular artillery, which was continued in operation and authority.

The first detachment of marines consisting of thirteen privates, a first sergeant, a sergeant, a corporal, and a fifer under the command of Capt. Clarence L. A. Ingate went ashore with their bags and hammocks at Piti on August 22, 1899 and marched to Agana where they lived in tents. This force was followed on the 31st by a body of thirty marines under Lt. Robert E. Carmody, and on September 11 the rest of the battalion and the remaining officers, Major Allen C. Kelton, Capt. John H. Russell, and Lt. Henry W. Carpenter left the Yosemite, after being delayed pending the preparation of accommodations at the capital. Like the former Spanish garrison, the marines became stationed at Agana and being more numerous had to be quartered in buildings formerly used as offices, in the College of San Juan de Letran recently built from funds supplied from the ancient donation of Maria Ana of Austria, as well as in the former barracks. Until he was invited by Governor Leary to move into the Palace with him, Major Kelton lived with Lieutenant Safford in his dwelling on the plaza. In his earliest report home on August 28, Governor Leary asked for another battalion of men and officers as there was much work to be done, but the scarcity of food and the lack of facilities to take care of them caused him to request the postponement of the reinforcement in October, and subsequently the Philippine insurrection absorbed all of the available men of the corps. However, in December 1899 he did receive some additional officers including Lts. Louis M. Gulick, Edwin A. Jonas, James W. Broatch, and William W. Low. The marine battalion comprised in the next month 112 marines, 10 bandsmen, 2 machinists, 6 carpenters, 3 plumbers and fitters, 3 firemen, 1 hospital steward, 1 hospital apprentice, 1 printer, and 1 coal passer, making a total of 140.

For months the marines were kept busy at strenuous labor renovating and repairing the public buildings and installing utilities necessary for the health and comfort of the garrison. The buildings were in a run-down condition, and had to be considerably improved before they were fit for occupancy. The tile roof of the Palace was replaced by one of the corrugated iron, which was better for catching rain water, and the entire building was repaired, painted, and whitewashed; seven other government buildings were given similar treatment. The roads about these buildings were reopened and cleaned, while the plaza was cleared of the trees and converted into a parade ground about which coconut palms were planted. The chief engineer of the Yosemite Lt. H. G. Leopold, undertook early in September the erection of an evaporating plant at the station. Until this could supply safe water for the use of the Palace and the naval station, water evaporated on board the Yosemite was taken by boat to Piti and then by bull cart to Agana, a seven mile journey which often took the native drivers so long that the day's supply did not reach Agana until the afternoon, sometimes to the distress of the marines. An early project was a sewer trench leading from the Palace and the marine barracks to the sea; the arduous labor involved in digging this trench resulted in what amounted to a mutiny among the marines, who felt that natives should have been employed for the job. As the marines were not given time in which to become acclimated before being required to tackle this work in the hot sun, some of them became sick. But it probably appeared necessary to their officers, for to have delayed the completion of sanitary improvements would have increased the danger from typhoid fever and other diseases to which the men began to succumb in the early autumn. Handicapped by the lack of material and tools, retarded by the difficulty of transporting things from the ship to the station, and lumber and lime on shore, and hindered by the detachment of a number of officers who had been on the Brutus, slow progress was made in the rehabilitation of the station. Towards the end of the year, however, with the assistance of native laborers the buildings were repaired, the sewerage system completed, and the evaporating plant was in operation. Completion of a flushing system constructed in connection with the sewer was delayed by breaks in the piping caused by earthquakes. A careful inspection was maintained of latrines in other buildings in the station,

such as the hospital and officers' residences, and the government buildings, which were not connected with the sewer. To provide sufficient gravity for the distribution of the distilled water from the evaporating plant to the Palace and the marine barracks, the tank was removed from the azotea of the Palace and raised on a tower built of hardwood 20 feet high to serve as a reservoir. Other things needed, reported the governor in asking for the material, were a sawmill, an ice plant, piping for a general water supply system, and tools to work with. In addition to these manifold labors the marines had planted a six acre farm, but American vegetables did not thrive there.

The year 1900 came but it brought no cessation of labor. The erection of a sawmill early in the year permitted native hardwood to be sawed up for building purposes. The construction of a redwood machine shop at the end of the year ended the dependence of the garrison upon the station ship's shop and made operations more efficient because of the greater convenience. A water wheel and pump were constructed in order that river water could be used in flushing the sewers. New boilers unloaded from the Scindia in February were connected with the evaporating plant. Another boiler received on that ship was for a refrigerating plant, which had been shipped on the Indra to Manila. By March a telephone system, which the governor had purchased in Singapore, was in successful operation between Piti and Agana. The improvement of the road between these places was under way not long afterwards. For the fiscal year 1900 the Bureau of Yards and Docks, which had cognizance of the station buildings at Guam, as at other naval establishments, reported an expenditure of $10,787.33.

Ordered to Agana to minister to the marines and the natives, Assistant Surgeon Alfred G. Grunwell soon had a hospital in operation in the former Spanish storehouse. And the hospital soon had patients, for an epidemic of typhoid fever appeared among the marines in September. They were cautioned repeatedly to use only distilled water, but except by confining them to barracks or on board ship it was impossible to prevent them from getting impure water in some form or other. By the middle of November there were fourteen cases of the fever in the hospital, and the epidemic worsened before it improved. In a naval hospital converted from a leased building near the plaza there were twenty-eight fever victims in January. Captain Ingate had died in the preceding month as a result of a surgical operation. To prevent the spread of infection, General Order No. 14 of February 3, 1900 subjected to quarantine all persons attached to the command apprehended after living with natives and thereby running the risk of acquiring the fever. Of the total of 150 men in the battalion, fifty-four were on the sick list in March, including eighteen cases of typhoid and twenty of diarrhea. By the following summer the men were much improved, having developed an immunity to typhoid. During the first year six marines died from this disease out of a total of fifty-two cases; there were besides twenty-one cases of dysentery, 112 cases of diarrhea, and various inflammatory intestinal ailments. Although typhoid fever had disappeared from the command by August 1900, the unsanitary conditions that produced it still existed, constituting a danger to new personnel.

The ordinary garrison routine of drills, target practice, instruction, inspections, etc. were suspended during the months in which the marines were engaged in making the station habitable and sanitary. But the living and the health conditions having improved, Major Kelton, on March 19, 1900, began a routine of which the timing was influenced by the experiences of the battalion on the island. Believing that it would be dangerous to the health of the men to have them engage in vigorous drills during the hot part of the day from 9 A.M. to 3:30 P.M., the major got the men up at 5, worked them from 6 until 9, and after allowing them to lay off until 2:30, then assembled them for afternoon police, supplying water, unloading stores, and interior work needing attention until 3:30; drills followed by a parade lasted from 4:10 to 5:10. The native workmen being used to the climate were worked an hour longer in the morning and an hour and a half longer in the afternoon, stopping at 5. Because of the epidemic of grippe (catarrh) which began in November 1900, all drills had to be suspended for seven months. A garrison routine with regular drills was reestablished in June 1901 by which time the station had been pretty well reconstructed and its health improved.

The marine battalion was not replaced until after more than a year of service on Guam. Kelton, now a lieutenant colonel, was relieved in September 1900 by Major Harry K. White and



7 Ice Plant Building

ICE PLANT BUILDING, GUAM

left on the Brutus on September 17. White remained on the island until the arrival of Major Paul St. C. Murphy in April 1902. The U.S.S. General Alava brought in on November 25, 1900 from Cavite a battalion of 92 marines under Capt. M.J. Shaw to relieve a portion (75) of the garrison which was transferred to Cavite, thus allowing much of the old garrison to escape the discouraging task of having to rebuild and repair the structures they had already labored on. The Solace came in two days later bringing seventeen men, relieving that number from the garrison, and taking away the Yosemite's marine guard. The arrival of fifty more marines on the U.S.A.T. Hancock in January 1901 produced congestion because one of the barracks damaged in the hurricane was still without a roof. At the end of the year the strength of the garrison was 152, there being twenty-five vacancies as a result of discharges, dismissals, and medical surveys. As opportunity presented small detachments of men were relieved from Guam, when Major Murphy arrived on the U.S.A.T. Sheridan in April 1902, twenty-five enlisted men came with him.

The naval station was considered to comprise the naval establishments at Agana, Piti, and the station ship, according to naval station order no. 1 of December 12, 1900. The commanding officer of the marine barracks also served as the chief of public works of the island government and had charge of transportation. The men assigned to work permanently in the different departments of the naval station, such as yards and docks, steam engineering, medicine and surgery, and supplies and accounts, were known as "inside" men. The departments were independent and each had control of a building under the cognizance of the bureau which it represented. Other men were known as "outside" men and had their work planned by the chief of public works. A department of equipment was added to those already in existence by an order of June 6, 1901. The pay officer began functioning on the next day as general store keeper of the station. When the office of chief of public works was vested in the head of the department of yards and docks of the naval station, on July 1, 1901, it was directed that the distinction between inside and outside men was abolished and the latter were placed under the department of yards and docks. It was announced at this time that the enlisted men would be replaced gradually by civil employees, thus bringing the station into accord with the practice in the United States. There was added to the station in May 1902, a department of construction and repair, whose function it was to repair the station craft, the station ship, and visiting United States vessels.

By an act of Congress of March 3, 1901, passed upon the recommendation of the Navy Department, officers of the Navy and officers and enlisted men of the Marine Corps detailed to duty on shore in Alaska, the Philippines, Guam and elsewhere beyond the continental limits of the United States were to be considered to have been detailed for "shore duty beyond seas" and were to receive such additional pay as might be provided by law for service in island possessions. This brought the marines serving on Guam within the provisions of the act of May 26, 1900, which provided ten per cent additional pay for officers and twenty per cent for men. This earlier act had failed to include Guam and China, omissions partly rectified by the act of March 3, 1901. Service abroad entailed more hardship than duty within the United States.

The facilities of the naval station were further improved during Governor Schroeder's administration. The ice plant brought on the Yosemite from Manila, where it had been exposed to the weather for a long time, was erected under the superintendence of Lt. Albert Moritz in a rented building on the banks of the Mattajanong River in the neighborhood of the water wheel, sawmill, machine shop, and distilling plant. A "house cooling" was held for the opening of the ice plant on October 1 with music and speeches, but the natives were not enthusiastic about the ice cream and cold drinks. Producing two tons of ice per day, the plant furnished a regular issue for the Palace, marine barracks, several officers' homes, the hospital, and for natives when prescribed by the surgeons. It also supplied a cold storage room large enough to preserve a supply of fresh meat for several months, furnished considerable drinking water, and power for the flushing system, the sawmill, and the carpenters' shop. Another improvement accomplished under the direction of Major White was the remodelling of a building known as "Filipino Hall" into a large, airy mess hall to replace the crowded, stuffy one which had been in use.

Upon several occasions Governor Schroeder urged upon the department the necessity for furnishing funds with which to install a water supply system for the Agana district in order to obviate the danger of another outbreak of typhoid, but it was a pretty costly project and the money was never forthcoming. In August 1900 he recommended damming the Masso River back of Piti to form

a reservoir from which water could be piped to the capital. A year subsequently he changed the site for proposed dam to the Pigo River, which entered the sea a mile and a half west of the Palace. The topographical survey of the island had been completed by Civil Engineer L. M. Cox by the summer of 1902, and the governor accepted his recommendation that the dam should be built in a gorge of the Fonte River about three miles southwest of Agana. The estimated cost was $32,000 for the whole system.

The improvements effected and the expenses of reconstruction necessitated by the damages done by the hurricane caused the expenditures of the Bureau of Yards and Docks for the naval station at Guam to be much heavier for the fiscal year 1901, as follows:

repairs and preservation	10,419.67
maintenance	17,199.54
contingent	2,899.30
emergency fund	18,774.78
	49,293.09

The expenditures from the emergency fund included $5,816.30 for the ice plant, $4,593.72 for a steam cutter, and other considerable sums for the sawmill, windmill, lighter, teams, furniture, etc. All of the expenditures were met from the emergency fund or from the bureau's general appropriations as no works of improvement had been specifically appropriated for by Congress.

The expenditures of the Bureau of Yards and Docks were even heavier for the fiscal year 1902 because of the extensive damage wrought by the earthquake of September 22, 1902, distributed as follows:

repairs and preservation	14,561.69
maintenance	27,099.01
contingent	14,660.90
	56,321,60

Over $11,000 of this amount was used to repair earthquake damages.

The buildings in existence at Guam and their cognizance are shown in the following order of May 31, 1902.

AGANA.

NO.	DESIGNATION OF BUILDING	UNDER CONTROL OF
1	Government House, (Commandart's Quarters)	Bureau Y. & D.
2	Marine Barrack and Quartermaster's Storehouse	Marine Corps.
3	Mess Room and Kitchen	Marine Corps.
4	Marine Barrack and Recreation Hall	Marine Corps.
5	General Storekeeper's Warehouse	Bureau S. & A.
7	Ice Plant Building	Bureau Y. & D.
8	Saw Mill Building	Bureau Y. & D.
9	Machine Shop	Bureau S. E.
10	Distilling Plant Building	Bureau Y. & D.
[illegible]	Sick Quarters	Bureau M. & S.
	[illegible]arters of Commanding Officer of Marines	Marine Corps.
	[illegible]and Stand	Bureau Y. & D.
[illegible]	[illegible]ule Shed	Bureau Y. & D.
15	Tool House of Yards and Docks	Bureau Y. & D.
16	Forage Shed	Bureau S. & A.
17	Oil Shed	Bureau S. & A.
18	Officers' Quarters	Bureau Y. & D.
19	Meteorological Station	Bureau Equip.

PITI.

100	Boat Wharf	Bureau Y. & D.
101	Boat Shed (Governor's Barge)	Bureau Y. & D.
102	General Storekeeper's Warehouse	Bureau S. & A.
103	Coal Shed	Bureau Equip.
104	Officers' Quarters	Bureau Y. & D.

PRESIDIO OF ASAN.

200	Officers' Quarters	Marine Corps.
201	Marine Barrack	Marine Corps.
202	Filipino Prisoners' Commissary Building	Office Sec'y Navy.
203	Filipino Prisoners' Barrack	Office Sec'y Navy.
204	Guard House	Marine Corps.
205	Stable	Marine Corps.
206	Barn	Marine Corps.
207	Filipino Prisoners' Sterilizing Shed	Office Sec'y Navy.
208	Officers' Kitchen	Marine Corps.
209	Filipino Prisoners' Hospital	Office Sec'y Navy.
210	Bath House	Marine Corps.
211	Dispensary	Bureau M. & S.
212	Guard House Washroom	Marine Corps.
213	Police Sergeant's Storeroom	Marine Corps.
214	Wagon House	Marine Corps.

The transportation of stores from the landing at Piti to Agana and Asan involved much labor on the part of the marines, whose regular task this became. During the fiscal year 1902, the quantities handled amounted to about 450 wagonloads and 4,000 cartloads and included 600 tons of coal which had to be transferred in bags. In addition a great deal of local transporation was necessary at the naval station in connection with the issue, shifting, and restowage of supplies, lumber, building materials, etc. Ambulance and wagon mule teams were run daily between Agana and Asan and Piti, transporting man and stores. A wooden mule shed was completed in June 1901, and a forage shed of stone undertaken.

A number of other buildings were erected at Agana during these early years as part of the program of the department to make a livable station. The completion of the sawmill in August 1901 facilitated further construction since hitherto lumber had been sawed by hand only on the island. A wooden officers' quarters with a galvanized iron roof was finished in the next month, as was a boiler house of the same construction, and a coal shed. When repairs to the signal station on the hill near Agana were completed in 1902, instruments were installed and a meterological station opened, three privates being detailed to take observations. The facilities at the station were pretty well rounded out in August 1902 by the completion of a blacksmith shop. The buildings at Guam were valued at $50,000 on June 30, 1901.

Public works were also constructed at Piti to carry on the much more limited activities there. A wooden wharf and a coal shed were completed in May 1901, and later a boat shed, general storekeeper's warehouse, and seamen's quarters. Here as well the station presumably had the two stone buildings taken over from the Spanish.

Although fewer deaths occurred, the health of the command was not good during the fiscal year 1901. In the average complement of 158 officers and men there were twenty-eight cases of typhoid fever, forty of dysentery, and fifty-two of diarrhea; two of the typhoid cases proved fatal. Owing to changes in personnel the cases of epidemic catarrh exceeded the number of persons in the garrison; this disease left its victims in a debilitated condition. The health of the men stationed at Piti, Asan, and on board the station ship was much better than that of the garrison at Agana. Both the governor and the surgeons regarded the year's experience as a further demonstration of the

unhealthfulness of the capital, which was located on contaminated soil and too close to a large swamp. Some use appears to have been made of the presidio at Asan and of the signal station behind the Palace as sanitariums for the convalescent. In August 1901 seventeen invalids accompanied by Assistant Surgeon Furlong were transferred in the Justin to Yokohama where since 1872 the Navy had maintained a hospital which had long been our only naval medical hospital in the Far East. At this time the health cruises which later developed into a regular custom were initiated, for Governor Schroeder in addition to the sick men sent on the Justin a smaller number of other enlisted men who were run down for the benefit of the change of air and scene.

In this isolated station the provision of means of recreation was considered important, and measures were taken to furnish it. The men were permitted to use the parade ground for baseball and other sports. A band stand of bamboo was completed on the parade ground in June 1901, furnishing a place where the small band attached to the station could play in the wet season. A library that had been provided by the Bureau of Equipment for the station ship, was so far away that another one was necessary for the station at Agana. After unsuccessful efforts had been made by Governor Leary to obtain a library from the Navy Department, some 1200 books were collected by donation in the United States and sent to Guam where they were shelved in a library and reading room opened in September 1901, in a corner of one of the barracks. A recreation room offered billiards and other games, and the profits derived from them and funds alloted for the improvement of the mess were used for the purchase of gymnasium and athletic apparatus. By 1902 material for a bowling alley had been acquired, and only awaited labor for its installation. Recreational facilities were also afforded at the Presidio of Asan. Yet in the opinion of Governor Schroeder the life of the garrison was very trying in that remote station at which he believed that men should not be kept longer than a year. To enliven the garrison and make its meals more cheerful and wholesome, the governor favored suspending the Navy Regulations so as to permit the use of beer, which in ordinary places was obtainable at saloons and the use of which would lessen the drinking of La Tuba, but this recommendation seems not to have been adopted.

A branch of the naval station, the Presidio of Asan, was established in 1901 as a prison camp for exiled Filipino insurrectionists. In the course of the insurrection against the American government in the Philippine Islands, Apolinario Mabini, the secretary of General Emilio Aguinaldo, leader of the insurrection, and other prominent civilian insurrectionists were captured. While held as a prisoner in the Philippines, Mabini was found to be croresponding with the insurgents, so the War Department arranged with the Navy Department to ship him and other captives to Guam where they would be out of touch with the Philippines. When thirty-two insurgents with fifteen servants were disembarked from the Rosecrans on January 25, 1901 and eleven more on the 31st from the Solace, the island government had to take immediate steps to house them. A government reservation formerly occupied by the Spanish leper colony at Asan on the road between Agana and Piti was decided upon and after being burned over became the exiles' home. It was named the Presidio of Asan on February 11 and was under the command of Major H. B. Orwig, 37th Infantry, U.S. Army, to whom were assigned for guard duty two officers and fifty-three men of the Marine Corps stationed on the island. The marine detachment was frequently changed in order to give the garrison the benefit of the change. Buildings constructed there included a storehouse, a building for the prisoners, barracks, stables, and officers' quarters. Upon learning of this arrangement the commandant of the Marine Corps protested to the Navy Department, so the army officer was relieved on May 19 and the command given to a marine officer, who was detailed there from Agana for short periods. Following the issuance of an amnesty proclamation by President Roosevelt on July 7, 1902, orders were sent to Governor Schroeder on the 26th to release the Filipino prisoners. All of them except Mabini and General Ricarte, who refused to take the oath of allegiance, were embarked on the Sheridan on September 21 and transported to the Philippines. Schroeder was informed in January 1903 that any persons who had not taken the oath could be allowed to leave provided they did not go to the Philippines where they would not be allowed to land. The Presidio of Asan was closed as a separate marine post on February 16, 1901.

Although relations between the enlisted men attached to the station and the natives were friendly on the whole, there was enough disorderly conduct to require the establishment of a military commission. By order of the governor a seaman attached to the Yosemite, who was accused by a citizen of Agana of insulting his wife while in a state of intoxication, was tried by a military commission at the end of September 1899 found guilty, sentenced to five days imprisonment in the

AGAVA FROM SIGNAL STATION ON MESA, C. 1900



jail at Agana, and fined twenty pesos and costs amounting to three pesos. The governor reported that he was led to create the military commission because of the scarcity of competent persons among the natives to perform judicial duty, their ignorance of the English language, and their desire to avoid complications with the marines. The military commission was to try natives as well as Americans, but what little it did was probably concerned mainly, if not entirely, with the latter. Lieutenant Safford acted as president of this body and Lieutenant Carmody as recorder; few or no records seem to have been kept, however, for in 1903 Governor Sewell could find none.

Further disorder resulted in the creation of a criminal court. An officers' dinner party was interrupted on the evening of January 1, 1900 by a man who reported that the captain of the neighboring village of Aniguak had been assaulted by some marines. This man had incurred the animosity of a number of the less law abiding among the marines by arresting a drunken and disorderly marine that day and bringing him into Agana with his hands tied behind him. In the evening this local official had been set upon in his sister's house in Agana, but when this had been broken into by the mob he had escaped into the woods via the roof. The result of this affair was the decision by the governor to have cases between enlisted men and natives tried by a civil court instead of by court martial. Lieutenant Safford was appointed, accordingly, judge of the criminal court of the island of Guam, on January 8, 1900, in addition to his other duties. Since the island was a naval station, the lieutenant did not see why offenses committed by enlisted men could not be tried by courts martial, but it was a small concession at best on the part of the governor. Not long afterwards a native whose house had been entered at night by two marines made a complaint, which became known to the culprits who seized him on the following evening when he was returning home and threw him into a bed of lilies. The native thereupon appealed for protection to Lieutenant Safford, who records that the trouble had resulted from the practice followed by the native's wife and sister-in-law of entertaining marines at night while the former's husband was off in the country foraging for chickens and other provisions for the officers' mess. In consequence the governor felt it necessary on January 19 to issue General Order No. 11 in which he reminded the garrison that it was the government's duty to protect the rights and privileges of the residents of Guam who "are not 'damned dagoes.' nor 'niggers,' but they are law abiding, respectful human beings..." as much entitled to courtesy, protection, and respect as Americans at home. He called upon the honorable and self-respecting portion of the command to suppress lawless acts on the part of others.

Governor Schroeder also had trouble with enlisted men. The barracks at Agana in which these men lived were detached buildings without an enclosure, so that surveillance was not practicable. The men were granted an unusual amount of liberty and privileges, being allowed to come and go as they wished when not on duty. Too much freedom appears to have been their undoing. A general condition of license among the men while on liberty became known to the governor through the theft of a barrel of whiskey from the hospital and clothing and money from an enlisted man. Finding that marines had been guilty of terrorism, theft, gambling, and drunkenness, the governor in an order of May 5, 1901 required all enlisted men to live in the barracks without liberty after taps, and urged the honorable men in the command to expose the guilty ones. Although this order contained some unfortunate lines, which the "honorable men" of the station might well have taken exception to, and which in fact the commandant of the Marine Corps did protest about in their behalf, it did result in the discovery of evidence leading to the arrest, trial, and conviction of the marines who had taken the private property. The sentences of four to six years given the three culprits turned out to be an embarrassment for the island government which had to support them. The identities of the men who had stolen the whiskey were not disclosed by their fellows, some of whom joined in in a wilful demonstration against the authority of the governor. When forty-five marines absented themselves after taps on May 19, the governor had general assembly called and sent out detachments under officers to bring in the missing men. But when the same performance occurred on the two succeeding nights, the governor gave them plenty of rope. The straggling then ceased except on the part of twenty-five hard characters. The men participating in these instances of deliberate insubordination were tried by summary court martial and the less flagrant cases given appropriate punishments. In the cases of fourteen marines, who were found guilty of more serious offenses, including leaving guard, obscene and blasphemous language, disorderly conduct while under arrest, disobedience of orders, resisting arrest, deserting post as sentry over prisoners and allowing prisoners to escape, and breaking arrest, it was decided that general courts martial were necessary. The governor sought to obtain authority to convene these courts himself, in order to escape mortification, maintain order, and check lawlessness, but the department

decided that he did not possess the qualifications stipulated by the regulations. He reported late in the following year that the necessity of having general courts martial ordered in Washington worked hardships upon both men and officers of the station as it required the retention of men during the period that permission was being obtained.

The survey of the harbor of San Luis d'Apra and its vicinity, which the Bennington had undertaken pursuant to the orders of December 1898 but left incomplete, was resumed by a board of officers appointed by Governor Leary on August 17, 1899. These instructions directed Lts. John E. Craven, Francis Boughter, A. Bainbridge Hoff, and Louis M. Nulton, and Surgeon Philip Leach to examine into and report upon a site for a coaling station in the harbor, giving careful consideration to the sites off the western end of Cabras Island and off Fort San Luis suggested by the Bureau of Equipment and to any other sites offering advantages. Prosecuted with vigor for several months by parties from both the Yosemite and the Brutus, the survey produced a report dated January 14, 1900.

The board favored a site on the southern side of Cabras Island where ships could lie at docks in all weather and which was well protected from attack from the sea by high bluffs on the northern side of the island. The shore at this point afforded good sites for coal sheds and store houses adjacent to the dock. The station could be connected with the main island by a road and a bridge, and water could be piped to it from a reservoir made by damming the Masso River, which would supply water suitable for drinking and industrial uses. Residences and administration buildings could be built on the eastern end of the island on an elevated plateau. But to make the location chosen for the dock usable by ships, a basin would have to be dredged. The site off Fort San Luis on Orote Peninsula was regarded as impractical because of its exposure to the ocean swell and its vulnerability to hostile attack from the sea, and because no water was available on the peninsula. The other side proposed by the Bureau of Equipment off the western end of Cabras Island had the disadvantage of being exposed to the ocean unless a breakwater were constructed along Luminan Reef and Calalan Bank to Spanish Rocks, and the end of the island was not suitable for building purposes. Approved by Captain Ide of the Yosemite and Governor Leary, the report was forwarded to the Assistant Secretary of the Navy, Charles H. Allen by whom it was referred in March 1900 to the Bureau of Equipment. In returning the report two months later, the chief of that bureau, Rear Admiral Royal B. Bradford, declaring that the island of Guam occupied the most important strategic position in the Pacific Ocean, and that its port would undergo a natural development for commercial and naval purposes, recommended the appointment of a commission to visit the island and prepare a complete plan of public works, including a site for the town at the port. The result was an appropriation of $10,000 by the river and harbor act of June 6, 1900 to enable the Secretary of the Navy to appoint a board to make a survey, plan and estimate for the improvement of the harbor of Guam.

Anticipating departmental approval of the plan to locate a coaling station on Cabras Island, arrangements were made by the gove · to purchase it. After a survey of the island was made by Pedro Duarte, a conference was h.. with the owner, Antonio Martinez y Pangelinan, by Governor Leary, Commander Schroeder, and Lieutenant Safford on July 11, 1900, and later that month the purchase was made by Governor Schroeder for $2,000 ($946 gold). The money was supplied from the island treasury, which was later reimbursed by the Navy Department. During the summer the crew of the Yosemite cut a road through the forest on the island to the point where it would be connected with the main island by a bridge. Governor Schroeder favored removing the capital and naval station from its unhealthy location at Agana to the plateau behind Piti and wrote the department of the desirability of having the region examined by a civil engineer. But this was a project which was soon to be handled by the Guam Survey Board.

Under the terms of the act of June 6, 1900, Acting Secretary of the Navy Frank W. Hackett, on September 4, 1900, appointed a board, consisting of Capt. John F. Merry, commandant of the naval station at Honolulu, Maj. John Biddle, Engineer Corps, U. S. Army, and Lt. Albert M. Beecher, U.S.N., to convene in Guam and make surveys and investigations for the improvement of the harbor of San Luis d'Apra, plans for a naval base and coaling depot and for the defenses of the port, and a site for a town. The board met at Guam on November 28, 1900, the day after its arrival there on the Solace. It had expected to live on board the Yosemite and to have considerable assistance from its officers, crew, and equipment, but the loss of that ship in the recent

typhoon made it necessary to erect a building on shore for use as a storehouse, quarters, and drafting room; tents were also put up. The Brutus furnished a steam launch and two men to run the boring machine, and some marines were detailed from the garrison to assist in surveying. The board obtained further help by employing natives for some of the work. During its four months' operations on the island, the board made a triangulation of the harbor, conducted test borings to determine the nature of its bottom, made a contour survey of the surrounding country, ran accurate transverse lines over all of the roads and trails in the vicinity of the harbor, dug test pits near Sumay, sounded the shoals and reefs in the harbor, and located sources of building materials. The board sailed on the Brutus on March 28, 1901 for Mañila where, while awaiting transportation home, field notes were plotted and the sheets were reduced to a uniform scale. In a rented office in San Francisco the board worked with the assistance of hired draftsmen preparing the final sheets and drawings for its report, which was submitted to the Navy Department on July 25.

The Guam Survey Board reported in favor of a site on Orote Peninsula south of Sumay for a naval base and coaling depot. Dredging would be necessary both here and at the Cabras Island site, which had been recommended by the board appointed by Governor Leary, but it was estimated that the dredging at Cabras Island would cost $38,000 more. Sumay offered a more extensive area for commercial purposes, could be more easily expanded, and afforded superior facilities for a commercial town site. It was a healthful location exposed to prevaling winds, and water could be supplied by damming the Paulana River, a branch of the Atantano River, which ran into the head of the bay. For the development of this site, improvements in the harbor, and fortifications, the board proposed the expenditure of nearly $2,000,000, including $394,500 for dredging, $135,000 for water supply and sewerage system, $423,500 for coal sheds and wharves, $89,500 for shops and storehouses, $102,000 for naval office buildings, quarters, barracks, etc., $525,000 for fortifications and mines, and $200,000 for military post and roads. Concrete emplacements were recommended for batteries on Orote Peninsula and Cabras Island. The board also presented a plan for a lighthouse. It did not recommend the construction of a breakwater, because it was not necessary for the protection of the sites at Sumay and Cabras Island, because to build it along Luminan Reef and Calalan Bank would have cost nearly $4,000,000, and because it was uncertain what effect the force of storms would have against it on a narrow bank with deep water so close. The report of the board was a thorough job, but it came to nothing.

The report of the Guam Survey Board was approved by the Assistant Secretary, strongly endorsed by the Bureau of Equipment, concurred in by the General Board, and ordered to be printed by Secretary of the Navy John D. Long in a confidential document. The naval and commerce committees of Congress were given copies of the report; the Senate passed a bill providing $150,000 for the improvement of the harbor, but the House did not concur. An appropriation of $40,000 was made, however, for the acquisition of land. But the fine plans of this board were never carried out, and, while Olongapo and Cavite in the the Philippines and Pearl Harbor in Hawaii were developed, Guam continued an insignificant naval station. The work of the board was a contribution to the geography of the island and enabled the Hydrographic Office to publish a new chart.

The German governor of the Marianas showed an unusual interest in Guam in 1902 by coming there on a visit, several years after the transfer of those islands to Germany. Returning to Guam from Saipan to which it had been sent by Governor Schroeder to ascertain whether any assistance could be rendered to earthquake victims, the Justin on September 25, 1902 overtook the becalmed Japanese schooner Chomei Maru and taking off Mr. G. Fritz carried him to Guam. The American officers were attentive to the German, who pursued his ethnological studies by visiting various parts of the island. Schroeder reported this to the department as an unofficial visit. In January 1903 the German gunboat Cormoran spent two days in the port of San Luis d'Apra. The Vice-governor of Saipan died at the naval hospital at Agana on February 6, 1903. Such is the chronicle of American relations with the German Marianas. Capt. J. U. Melander of the American schooner Tulenkun, who had built up a profitable inter-island trade, came to Governor Schroeder in the spring of 1901 with a story of being ordered out of the Cow islands in the Caroline group by the German vice-governor at Ponape. This matter was referred to the United States Department of State, which requested more information.

When Governor Schroeder retired from Guam early in 1903, it was almost five years since the Charleston and her convoy had swooped down upon the unsuspecting Spaniards. During that interval, the major pattern of American occupation had taken form, and naval versatility had turned in a characteristically workmanlike job in assuming the novel burdens and responsibilities of imperialism. Assignment to Guam was not regarded as one of the choicest plums at the disposal of the Bureau of Navigation, but the men told off for the task did their work well. The same was true of the Marines. Guam might be only a dot on the map, "a thousand miles from nowhere"; Congress might be deaf to its modest needs; and yet it enjoyed a distinction shared by few other specks that size - every American schoolchild was made well aware of its existence as part of the new American empire. The more routine story of Guam's next third of a century will be told in a later report of this series.

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General Correspondence, 1898-1903
Bureau of Naval Personnel
Correspondence Files, 1898-1902
Letters Sent to Officers, 1898-1902
Letters Sent to Ships, 1898-1902
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Officers' records; Vincendon L. Cottman, Louis A. Kaiser, Edward D. Taussig.
Bureau of Ships
Photographic Collection
Bureau of Yards and Docks
Annual Reports and Estimates from Navy Yards and Stations, Guam, 1900-1903. These volumes include photographs of some of the early buildings constructed at Agana.
General Correspondence, 1898-1903
Marine Corps
Correspondence File, 1898-1902
Office of the Judge Advocate General
Naval Examining Board Records of: Richard P. Leary, Alfred W. Pressey, Seaton Schroeder
Office of the Secretary of the Navy
General Correspondence File, 1898-1903. In this file use was made of the following file numbers: 4758 Equipment for Guam, 7178 Yosemite, 9351 Guam, 10312 Nanshan, 10825 Coaling station and Guam Survey Board. The most important of these and the most valuable Navy Department file relating to Guam is 9351, which contains the original reports, correspondence, and cables received from the naval officers who visited Guam in 1898 and 1899 and from Governors Leary and Schroeder. It also contains communications addressed by the Assistant Secretary of the Navy, who was in charge in the department of affairs relating to Guam, to the governors and others from the Secretary of the Navy. This material is arranged numerically, and, since the sub-numbers were applied as the correspondence was received, it is essentially a chronological file. All of file 9351 for the period covered in this study was used.
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Diary loaned by Capt. L. A. Kaiser, U.S.N., Jamestown, R.I., copied Sept. 1937. 25 p., This diary covers the period during which Lieutenant Kaiser sojourned at Guam, and is somewhat better than an ordinary log book of a naval vessel, such as that of the Nanshan would have been if one were available.
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Administrative Reference Service Report No. 7

PRINCIPAL OFFICIALS AND OFFICERS, NAVY DEPARTMENT AND UNITED STATES FLEET SEPTEMBER 1, 1939 - MAY 24, 1944

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Administrative Office
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May 1944

Bureau of Medicine and Surgery (1842)
Chief (Surgeon General): Dec.'38, Vice Adm.Ross T. McIntire (MC)
Asst.: Dec.'36, Capt. Dallas G. Sutton (MC); June '40, Rear Adm. Luther Sheldon, Jr. (MC)

Bureau of Naval Personnel (1862) (Bureau of Navigation until May 13, 1942)
Chief: June '39, Rear Adm. Chester W. Nimitz; Dec.'41, Vice Adm. Randall Jacobs
Asst.: Sept.'39, Capt. Randall Jacobs; Dec.'40, Capt. A. T. Bidwell; June '41, Rear Adm. John F. Shafroth; Jan.'42, Rear Adm. Louis E. Denfeld

Bureau of Ordnance (1842)
Chief: Aug.'37, Rear Adm. William R. Furlong; Feb.'41, Rear Adm. William H. P. Blandy; Dec.'43, Rear Adm. George F. Hussey, Jr.
Asst.: June '36, Capt. Henry T. Markland; Jan.'40, Capt. Glenn B. Davis; July '42, Rear Adm. Theodore D. Ruddock; Sept.'43, Rear Adm. George F. Hussey, Jr.; Dec.'43, Rear Adm. Willard A. Kitts, 3rd

Bureau of Ships (1940)
Chief: June '40, Rear Adm. Samuel M. Robinson; Feb.'42, Rear Adm. Alexander H. Van Keuren; Nov.'42, Rear Adm. Edward L. Cochrane
Asst.: June '40, Rear Adm. Alexander H. Van Keuren; Feb.'42, Rear Adm. Claud A. Jones; Nov.'42, Rear Adm. Earle W. Mills

Bureau of Supplies and Accounts (1842)
Chief (Paymaster General): Apr.'39, Rear Adm. Ray Spear (SC); June '42, Rear Adm. William B. Young (SC)
Asst.: June '39, Capt. Ellsworth H. Van Patten (SC); June '42, Rear Adm. William J. Carter (SC)

Bureau of Yards and Docks (1842)
Chief (Chief of Civil Engineers): Dec.'37, Vice Adm. Ben Moreell (CEC)
Asst.: Jan.'38, Rear Adm. Lewis B. Combs (CEC)

Judge Advocate General (1880)
Judge Advocate General: June '38, Rear Adm. Walter B. Woodson; Sept.'43, Rear Adm. Thomas L. Gatch
Asst.: June '38, Comdr. S. B. Robinson; Aug.'40, Capt. Thomas L. Gatch; Feb.'42, Rear Adm. Leslie E. Bratton; Dec.'43, Rear Adm. Frank L. Lowe

Coast Guard (1790, 1915)
Commandant: June '36, Vice Adm. Russell R. Waesche
Asst.: Dec.'31, Rear Adm. Leon C. Covell; Dec.'41, Rear Adm. Lloyd T. Chalker

Marine Corps (1798)
Commandant: Dec.'36, Lt. Gen. Thomas Holcomb; Jan.'44, Lt. Gen. Alexander A. Vandegrift
Asst.: Mar.'40, Brig. Gen. Alexander A. Vandegrift; Nov.'41, Brig. Gen. Charles D. Barrett; Mar.'42, Brig. Gen. Ralph S. Keyser; Oct.'42, Brig. Gen. Harry Schmidt; Aug.'43, Maj. Gen. Keller E. Rockey; Jan.'44, Maj. Gen. DeWitt Peck

General Board (1900)
Chairman: June '39, Rear Adm. Walton R. Sexton; Aug.'42, Adm. Arthur J. Hepburn

Chief Clerk (1798)
July '18, William D. Bergman (resigned Oct.'42) X

Administrative Office (1941)
Administrative Officer: July '41, Rear Adm. Henry Williams; Mar.'42, Vice Adm. Henry V. Butler

Shore Establishments Division (1921)
Director: Sept.'39, Rear Adm. Charles W. Fisher (to Jan.'44) X

Personnel Supervision and Management (1938)
Director of Civilian Personnel: Feb.'39, Charles Piozet (to Jan.'44) X

Shore Establishments and Civilian Personnel (1944)
Director: Jan.'44, Rear Adm. Frederick G. Crisp

Office of Public Relations (1918)
Director: Dec.'37, Comdr. Leland P. Lovette; July '40, Comdr. Harry R. Thurber; May '41, Adm. Arthur J. Hepburn; Aug.'42, Capt. Leland P. Lovette

Office of Budget and Reports (1921) (Budget Office until Jan.4, 1941)
Director: July '38, Rear Adm. Ezra G. Allen

Naval Research Laboratory (1923)
Director: June '35, Capt. Hollis M. Cooley; Oct.'39, Rear Adm. Harold G. Bowen; Jan.'43, Rear Adm. Alexander H. Van Keuren

Procurement Legal Division (1941)
Chief: July '41, H. Struve Hensel

Office of Coordinator of Research and Development (1941)
Coordinator: July '41, Jerome C. Hunsaker; Dec.'41, Rear Adm. Julius A. Furer

Office of Procurement and Material (1942)
Director: Jan.'42, Vice Adm. Samuel M. Robinson

Navy Manpower Survey Board (1943)
Senior Member: Nov.'43, Vice Adm. Adolphus Andrews

Commandants, Naval Districts (1903)

FIRST Naval District, Boston, Massachusetts
July '38, Rear Adm. William T. Tarrant#; July '42, Rear Adm. Wilson Brown#; Feb.'43, Rear Adm. Robert A. Theobald#

(SECOND Naval District, Newport, Rhode Island discontinued 1919 X)

THIRD Naval District, New York, New York
Sept.'37, Rear Adm. Clark H. Woodward#; Mar.'41, Rear Adm. Adolphus Andrews#; Mar.'42, Rear Adm. Edward J. Marquart#; Apr.'44, Rear Adm. William R. Munroe

FOURTH Naval District, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
Nov.'38, Rear Adm. J. C. Townsend#; Jan.'40, Rear Adm. Adolphus E. Watson#; Aug.'42, Rear Adm. Milo F. Draemel#

FIFTH Naval District, Norfolk, Virginia
Sept.'38, Rear Adm. Joseph K. Taussig; June '41, Rear Adm. Manley H. Simons; May '43, Rear Adm. Herbert F. Leary; Oct.'43, Rear Adm. David M. Le Breton

SIXTH Naval District, Charleston, South Carolina
Mar.'38, Rear Adm. William H. Allen# (6th,7th and 8th Naval Districts until relieved as Commandant, 8th Naval District on Dec.'40 and 7th Naval District on Feb.'42); June '42, Rear Adm. William A. Glassford#; May '43, Rear Adm. Jules James#

SEVENTH Naval District, Miami, Florida (Reopened Feb. 1942)
June '42, Rear Adm. James L. Kauffman#; Apr.'43, Rear Adm. William R. Munroe#; Apr.'44, (Capt. H. H. J. Benson, acting)#

EIGHTH Naval District, New Orleans, Louisiana (Reopened Dec. 1940)
Dec.'40, (Capt. Thaddeus A. Thomson, acting); Apr.'42, Rear Adm. Frank T. Leighton; June '43, Rear Adm. Andrew C. Bennett

NINTH Naval District, Great Lakes, Illinois
Aug.'39, Rear Adm. William C. Watts; Aug.'40, Rear Adm. John Downes; Jan.'44, Rear Adm. Arthur S. Carpender

TENTH Naval District, San Juan, Puerto Rico (Reopened Jan. 1940)
Feb.'40, Rear Adm. Raymond A. Spruance#; July '41, Vice Adm. John H. Hoover#; Aug.'43, Vice Adm. Arthur B. Cook#

ELEVENTH Naval District, San Diego, California
June '39, Rear Adm. Joseph R. Defrees; June '40, Rear Adm. Charles A. Blakely; Dec.'41, Rear Adm. Ralston S. Holmes; Mar.'43, Rear Adm. David W. Bagley; Jan.'44, Rear Adm. Wilhelm L. Friedell

TWELFTH Naval District, San Francisco, California
Feb.'38, Rear Adm. Arthur J. Hepburn; Apr.'41, Vice Adm. John W. Greenslade#; Jan.'44, Rear Adm. Carleton H. Wright

THIRTEENTH Naval District, Seattle, Washington
July '37, Rear Adm. Edward B. Fenner#; Aug.'40, Vice Adm. Charles S. Freeman#; Nov.'42, Vice Adm. Frank J. Fletcher#; Oct.'43, Rear Adm. Sherwoode A. Taffinder#

FOURTEENTH Naval District, Pearl Harbor, Hawaii
Nov.'36, Rear Adm. Orin G. Murfin#; Apr.'40, Rear Adm. Claude C. Bloch#; Apr.'42, Rear Adm. David W. Bagley#; Feb.'43, Vice Adm. Robert L. Ghormley#

FIFTEENTH Naval District, Balboa, Canal Zone
Aug.'39, Rear Adm. Frank H. Sadler#; Apr.'42, Rear Adm. Clifford E. Van Hook#; Oct.'43, Rear Adm. Harold C. Train#

SIXTEENTH Naval District, Cavite, Philippine Islands
May '39, Rear Adm. John M. Smeallie#; Jan.'41, Rear Adm. Harold M. Bemis#; Nov.'41, Rear Adm. Francis W. Rockwell# X

SEVENTEENTH Naval District, (Adak, temporary), Kodiak, Alaska (1944)
Mar.'44, Rear Adm. F. E. M. Whiting

Potomac River Naval Command (1941)
Dec.'41, Rear Adm. George T. Pettengill#; Sept.'42, Rear Adm. Ferdinand L. Reichmuth#

Severn River Naval Command (1941)
Dec.'41, Rear Adm. Russell Willson#; Jan.'42, Rear Adm. John R. Beardall#

Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy (1789)
President: Mar.'33, Franklin D. Roosevelt

Chief of Staff to Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy (1942)
July '42, Admiral William D. Leahy

United States Fleet

Commander in Chief
Jan.'38, Adm. Claude C. Bloch; Jan.'40, Adm. James O. Richardson; Feb.'41, Adm. Husband E. Kimmel#; Dec.'41, Adm. Ernest J. King+

Chief of Staff
May '39, Capt. Robert A. Theobald; Jan.'40, Rear Adm. Sherwoode A. Taffinder; Dec.'41, Vice Adm. Russell Willson; Sept.'42, Vice Adm. Richard S. Edwards

Deputy Chief of Staff (1941)
Dec.'41, Rear Adm. Richard S. Edwards; Aug.'42, Rear Adm. Patrick N. L. Bellinger; Mar.'43, Rear Adm. William R. Purnell; Oct.'43, Rear Adm. Charles M. Cooke, Jr.

Commander in Chief

Atlantic Fleet (1941)
Feb.'41, Adm. Ernest J. King; Jan.'42, Adm. Royal E. Ingersoll

Pacific Fleet (1941)
Feb.'41, Adm. Husband E. Kimmel#; Dec.'41, Adm. Chester W. Nimitz

Asiatic Fleet
(Oct.'36, Adm. Harry E. Yarnell); July '39, Adm. Thomas C. Hart X

Commanders

South Pacific Area and South Pacific Force (1942)
Apr.'42, Vice Adm. Robert L. Ghormley; Oct.'42, Adm. William F. Halsey, Jr.

Southwest Pacific Force (1942)
Feb.'42, Vice Adm. William A. Glassford; Apr.'42, Vice Adm. Herbert F. Leary; Sept.'42, Vice Adm. Arthur S. Carpender; Nov.'43, Vice Adm. Thomas C. Kinkaid

Southeast Pacific Force (1942)
Jan.'42, Rear Adm. John F. Shafroth; Dec.'42, Rear Adm. Francis E. M. Whiting; Oct.'43, Vice Adm. Harold C. Train#

Commanders (continued)

Central Pacific Force (1943)
Aug.'43, Adm. Raymond A. Spruance

North Pacific Force (1942)
May '42, Rear Adm. Robert A. Theobald; Jan.'43, Vice Adm. Thomas C. Kinkaid; Oct.'43, Vice Adm. Frank J. Fletcher#

U. S. Naval Forces, Europe (1942)
Apr.'42, Adm. Harold R. Stark

South Atlantic Force (1942)
Sept.'42, Vice Adm. Jonas H. Ingram

Northwest African Waters (1943)
Mar.'43, Vice Adm. Henry K. Hewitt

Sea Frontiers [1]

Commanders

Eastern Sea Frontier (Formerly North Atlantic Naval Coastal Frontier)(1941)
Mar.'41, Vice Adm. Adolphus Andrews#; Nov.'43, Vice Adm. Herbert F. Leary

Gulf Sea Frontier (Formerly Southern Naval Coastal Frontier) (1941)
July '41, Rear Adm. William H. Allen#; June '42, Rear Adm. James L. Kauffman#; Apr.'43, Rear Adm. William R. Munroe#; Apr.'44, (Capt. H. H. J. Benson, acting)#

Caribbean Sea Frontier (Formerly Caribbean Naval Coastal Frontier) (1941)
July '41, Rear Adm. Raymond A. Spruance#; July '41, Vice Adm. John H. Hoover#; Aug.'43, Vice Adm. Arthur B. Cook#

Panama Sea Frontier (Formerly Panama Naval Coastal Frontier) (1941)
July '41, Rear Adm. Frank H. Sadler#; Apr.'42, Rear Adm. Clifford E. Van Hook#; Oct.'43, Rear Adm. Harold C. Train#

Western Sea Frontier (Formerly Pacific Southern Naval Coastal Frontier)(1941)
July '41, Vice Adm. John W. Greenslade#; Feb.'44, Vice Adm. David W. Bagley

Northwest Sea Frontier (Formerly Pacific Northern Naval Coastal Frontier)(1941)
July '41, Rear Adm. Charles S. Freeman#; Nov.'42, Vice Adm. Frank J. Fletcher#

Hawaiian Sea Frontier (Formerly Hawaiian Naval Coastal Frontier) (1941)
July '41, Rear Adm. Claude C. Bloch#; Apr.'42, Rear Adm. David W. Bagley#; Feb.'43, Vice Adm. Robert L. Ghormley#

Philippine Naval Coastal Frontier (1941)
July '41, Rear Adm. Harold M. Bemis#; Nov.'41, Rear Adm. Francis W. Rockwell# X

1 Titles changed from Naval Coastal Frontiers to Sea Frontiers, Feb. 6, 1942

Commanders (continued)

Moroccan Sea Frontier (Formerly Sea Frontier Forces, Western Task Force)(1942)[2]
Nov.'42, Rear Adm. John L. Hall, Jr.; Feb.'43, Rear Adm. Frank J. Lowry; Sept.'43, Capt. Chester L. Nichols; Oct.'43, Rear Adm. Benjamin V. McCandlish

[2] Title changed from Sea Frontier Forces, Western Task Force to Moroccan Sea Frontier Forces, Feb. 17, 1943

Blair, Marion E.

Administrative Reference Service Report No. 7A

PRINCIPAL OFFICIALS AND OFFICERS, NAVY DEPARTMENT AND UNITED STATES FLEET

SEPTEMBER 1, 1939 - JUNE 1, 1945

Records Administration Division
Administrative Office
Navy Department
June 1945

Administrative Reference Service Reports

1. Incentives for Civilian Employees of the Navy Department: A Review of the Experience of the First World War, by Dr. Henry P. Beers. (Special Report, not for general distribution), May 1943.

2. U. S. Naval Detachment in Turkish Waters, 1919-1924, by Dr. Henry P. Beers, June 1943.

3. U. S. Naval Port Officers in the Bordeaux Region, 1917-1919, by Dr. Henry P. Beers, September 1943.

 3A. U. S. Naval Port Regulations, Port of Bordeaux, France (Reproduction of 30 page pamphlet issued 19 March 1919) July 1943.

4. The American Naval Mission in the Adriatic, 1918-1921, by Dr. A. C. Davidonis, September 1943.

5. U. S. Naval Forces in Northern Russia (Archangel and Murmansk), 1918-1919, by Dr. Henry P. Beers, November 1943.

6. American Naval Occupation and Government of Guam, 1898-1902, by Dr. Henry P. Beers, March 1944.

7. Principal Officials and Officers, Navy Department and United States Fleet, September 1, 1939 - May 24, 1944.

 7A. Principal Officials and Officers, Navy Department and United States Fleet, September 1, 1939 - June 1, 1945.

8. Demobilization of Civilian Personnel by the U. S. Navy After the First World War, by Bess Glenn, February 1945

Note:

The following list includes the names of the officials and officers who have held many of the most important Naval positions since the outbreak of war in September 1939. It supersedes the original list issued in May 1944. It has not been feasible to include as many of the important commands afloat as it has been in connection with the Navy Department and Shore Establishment.

Abbreviations:

Date (1798), etc.: Year of establishment of office.
X Office discontinued.
Incumbent of more than one position simultaneously.

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A - NAVY DEPARTMENT HEADQUARTERS

Secretary of the Navy (1798)

(Apr.'33, Claude Swanson, died July '39); July '39, (Charles A. Edison, acting); Jan.'40, Charles A. Edison; July '40, Frank Knox, died Apr.'44; May '44, James V. Forrestal

Under Secretary of the Navy (1940)

Aug.'40, James V. Forrestal; June '44, Ralph A. Bard

Assistant Secretary of the Navy for Air (1926-1932, 1941)

Sept.'41, Artemus L. Gates

Assistant Secretary of the Navy (1862-68, 1890)

Nov.'36, Charles A. Edison; Feb.'40, Lewis Compton; Feb.'41, Ralph A. Bard; (Office vacant, June '44 - Jan.'45); Jan.'45, H. Struve Hensel

Office of Chief of Naval Operations (1915)

Chief: Aug.'39, Adm. Harold R. Stark; Mar.'42, Adm. Ernest J. King#, (Fleet Adm., Dec.'44)

Asst.: July '39, Rear Adm. Robert L. Ghormley; July '40, Rear Adm. Royal E. Ingersoll; Dec.'41, Rear Adm. Frederick J. Horne X

Deputy Commanders in Chief, U.S. Fleet and Deputy Chiefs of Naval Operations (1944)

Oct.'44, Vice Adm. Richard S. Edwards, (Adm., Apr.'45)

Nov.'44, Adm. Royal E. Ingersoll#

Vice Chief of Naval Operations (1942)

Mar.'42, Vice Adm. Frederick J. Horne, (Adm., Jan.'45)

Sub Chief of Naval Operations (1942)

Mar.'42, Rear Adm. John H. Newton; Oct.'43, Rear Adm. William S. Farber, (Vice Adm., Apr.'45)

Deputy Chief of Naval Operations (Air) (1943)

Aug.'43, Vice Adm. John S. McCain; Aug.'44, Vice Adm. Aubrey W. Fitch

Assistant Chief of Naval Operations for Material (1942)

Mar.'42, Rear Adm. William S. Farber; Oct.'43, Rear Adm. William R. Purnell

Assistant Chief of Naval Operations for Logistics Plans (1943)

Mar.'43, Rear Adm. Oscar C. Badger; Jan.'44, Rear Adm. Lynde D. McCormick; Mar.'45, Rear Adm. Vincent R. Murphy

Assistant Chief of Naval Operations for Navy Inventory Control (1944)

May '44, Rear Adm. James M. Irish

Bureau of Aeronautics (1921)

Chief: June '39, Rear Adm. John H. Towers; Oct.'42, Rear Adm. John S. McCain; Aug.'43, Rear Adm. DeWitt C. Ramsey; June '45, Rear Adm. H. B. Sallada
Asst.: June '39, Capt. Marc A. Mitscher; July '41, Capt. DeWitt C. Ramsey; May '42, Rear Adm. Ralph E. Davison; Nov.'43, Rear Adm. Lawrence B. Richardson

Bureau of Construction and Repair (1842)

Chief: Mar.'37, Rear Adm. William G. DuBose (CC); Sept.'39, Rear Adm. Alexander H. Van Keuren (CC) X (see Bureau of Ships)
Asst.: Apr.'37, Capt. Henry Williams (CC) X

Bureau of Engineering (1862)

Chief: May '35, Rear Adm. Harold G. Bowen; Sept.'39, Rear Adm. Samuel M. Robinson X (see Bureau of Ships)
Asst.: June '36, Capt. James M. Irish X

Bureau of Medicine and Surgery (1842)

Chief (Surgeon General): Dec.'38, Rear Adm. Ross T. McIntire (MC), (Vice Adm., Feb.'44)
Asst.: Dec.'36, Capt. Dallas G. Sutton (MC); June '40, Rear Adm. Luther Sheldon, Jr. (MC); Nov.'44, Rear Adm. William J. C. Agnew (MC)

Bureau of Naval Personnel (1862) (Bureau of Navigation until May 13, 1942)

Chief: June '39, Rear Adm. Chester W. Nimitz; Dec.'41, Rear Adm. Randall Jacobs, (Vice Adm., Feb.'44)
Asst.: Sept.'39, Capt. Randall Jacobs; Dec.'40, Capt. A. T. Bidwell; June '41, Rear Adm. John F. Shafroth; Jan.'42, Rear Adm. Louis E. Denfeld; Mar.'45, Rear Adm. William M. Fechteler

Bureau of Ordnance (1842)

Chief: Aug.'37, Rear Adm. William R. Furlong; Feb.'41, Rear Adm. William H. P. Blandy; Dec.'43, Rear Adm. George F. Hussey, Jr.
Asst.: June '36, Capt. Henry T. Markland; Jan.'40, Capt. Glenn B. Davis; July '42, Rear Adm. Theodore D. Ruddock; Sept.'43, Rear Adm. George F. Hussey, Jr.; Dec.'43, Rear Adm. Willard A. Kitts, 3rd

Bureau of Ships (1940)

Chief: June '40, Rear Adm. Samuel M. Robinson; Feb.'42, Rear Adm. Alexander H. Van Keuren; Nov.'42, Rear Adm. Edward L. Cochrane, (Vice Adm., Apr.'45)
Asst.: June '40, Rear Adm. Alexander H. Van Keuren; Feb.'42, Rear Adm. Claud A. Jones; Nov.'42, Rear Adm. Earle W. Mills

Bureau of Supplies and Accounts (1842)

Chief (Paymaster General): Apr.'39, Rear Adm. Ray Spear (SC); June '42, Rear Adm. William B. Young (SC); Mar.'45, Rear Adm. William J. Carter (SC)
Asst.: June '39, Capt. Ellsworth H. Van Patten (SC); June '42, Rear Adm. William J. Carter (SC); Mar.'45, Rear Adm. Horace D. Nuber(SC)

Bureau of Yards and Docks (1842)

Chief (Chief of Civil Engineers): Dec.'37, Rear Adm. Ben Moreell,(CEC), (Vice Adm., Feb.'44)
Asst.: Jan.'38, Rear Adm. Lewis B. Combs (CEC)

Judge Advocate General (1880)

Judge Advocate General: June '38, Rear Adm. Walter B. Woodson; Sept.'43, Rear Adm. Thomas L. Gatch
Asst.: June '38, Comdr. S. B. Robinson; Aug.'40, Capt. Thomas L. Gatch; Feb.'42, Rear Adm. Leslie E. Bratton; Dec.'43, Rear Adm. Frank L. Lowe

Coast Guard (1790, 1915)

Commandant: June '36, Rear Adm. Russell R. Waesche, (Vice Adm., Mar.'42; Adm., Apr.'45)
Asst.: Dec.'31, Rear Adm. Leon C. Covell; Dec.'41, Rear Adm. Lloyd T. Chalker

Marine Corps (1798)

Commandant: Dec.'36, Maj. Gen. Thomas Holcomb, (Lt. Gen., Jan.'42); Jan.'44, Lt. Gen. Alexander A. Vandegrift, (Gen., Apr.'45)
Asst.: Mar.'40, Brig. Gen. Alexander A. Vandegrift; Nov.'41, Brig. Gen. Charles D. Barrett; Mar.'42, Brig. Gen. Ralph S. Keyser; Oct.'42, Brig. Gen. Harry Schmidt; Aug.'43, Maj. Gen. Keller E. Rockey; Jan.'44, Maj. Gen. DeWitt Peck

General Board (1900)

Chairman: June '39, Rear Adm. Walton R. Sexton; Aug.'42, Adm. Arthur J. Hepburn

Chief Clerk (1798)

July '18, William D. Bergman (resigned Oct.'42) X

Administrative Office (1941)

Administrative Officer: July '41, Rear Adm. Henry Williams; Mar.'42, Vice Adm. Henry V. Butler; Nov.'44, Comdr. Ronald J. Chinnock, (Capt., May '45)

Shore Establishments Division (1921)

Director: Sept.'39, Rear Adm. Charles W. Fisher (to Jan.'44) X

Personnel Supervision and Management (1938)

Director of Civilian Personnel: Feb.'39, Charles Piozet (to Jan.'44) X

Shore Establishments and Civilian Personnel (1944)

Director: Jan.'44, Rear Adm. Frederick G. Crisp

Office of Public Relations (1918)

Director: Dec.'37, Comdr. Leland P. Lovette; July '40, Comdr. Harry R. Thurber; May '41, Rear Adm. Arthur J. Hepburn, (Adm. (Ret.), Nov.'41); Aug.'42, Capt. Leland P. Lovette; June '44, Rear Adm. A. S. Merrill; May '45, Rear Adm. Harold B. Miller

Office of Budget and Reports (1921) (Budget Office until Jan. 4, 1941)

Director: July '38, Rear Adm. Ezra G. Allen

Office of Fiscal Director (1944)

Fiscal Director: Dec.'44, Wilfred J. McNeil

Office of Naval History (1944)

Director: July '44, Adm. E. C. Kalbfus

Office of General Counsel (1941) (Procurement Legal Division until Aug. 3, 1944)

General Counsel: July '41, H. Struve Hensel; Jan.'45, W. John Kenney; Apr.'45, Patrick H. Hodgson

Office of Procurement and Material (1942)

Chief: Jan.'42, Vice Adm. Samuel M. Robinson

Office of Research and Inventions (1945)

Chief: May '45, Rear Adm. Harold G. Bowen

Commandants, Naval Districts

FIRST Naval District, Boston, Massachusetts (1903)

July '38, Rear Adm. William T. Tarrant#; July '42, Rear Adm. Wilson Brown#; Feb.'43, Rear Adm. Robert A. Theobald#; Oct.'44, Rear Adm. Felix X. Gygax#

(SECOND Naval District, Newport, Rhode Island discontinued 1919 X)

THIRD Naval District, New York, New York (1903)

Sept.'37, Rear Adm. Clark H. Woodward#; Mar.'41, Rear Adm. Adolphus Andrews#; Mar.'42, Rear Adm. Edward J. Marquart#; Apr.'44, Rear Adm. William R. Munroe; Nov.'44, Rear Adm. Monroe Kelly

FOURTH Naval District, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania (1903)

Nov.'38, Rear Adm. J. C. Townsend#; Jan.'40, Rear Adm. Adolphus E. Watson#; Aug.'42, Rear Adm. Milo F. Draemel#

FIFTH Naval District, Norfolk, Virginia (1903)

Sept.'38, Rear Adm. Joseph K. Taussig; June '41, Rear Adm. Manley H. Simons; May '43, Rear Adm. Herbert F. Leary; Oct.'43, Rear Adm. David M. Le Breton

SIXTH Naval District, Charleston, South Carolina (1903)

Mar.'38, Rear Adm. William H. Allen# (6th, 7th and 8th Naval Districts until relieved as Commandant, 8th Naval District on Dec.'40 and 7th Naval District on Feb.'42); June '42, Rear Adm. William A. Glassford#; May '43, Rear Adm. Jules James#

SEVENTH Naval District, Miami, Florida (1903) (Reopened Feb. 1942)

June '42, Rear Adm. James L. Kauffman#; Apr.'43, Rear Adm. William R. Munroe#; Apr.'44, (Capt. H. H. J. Benson, acting)#; July '44, Rear Adm. Walter S. Anderson#, (Vice Adm., Apr.'45)

EIGHTH Naval District, New Orleans, Louisiana (1903) (Reopened Dec. 1940)

Dec.'40, (Capt. Thaddeus A. Thomson, acting); Apr.'42, Rear Adm. Frank T. Leighton; June '43, Rear Adm. Andrew C. Bennett

NINTH Naval District, Great Lakes, Illinois (1903)

Aug.'39, Rear Adm. William C. Watts; Aug.'40, Rear Adm. John Downes; Jan.'44, Rear Adm. Arthur S. Carpender, (Vice Adm., Apr.'45)

TENTH Naval District, San Juan, Puerto Rico (1940)

Feb.'40, Rear Adm. Raymond A. Spruance#; July '41, Vice Adm. John H. Hoover#; Aug.'43, Vice Adm. Arthur B. Cook#; May '44, Vice Adm. Robert C. Giffen#

ELEVENTH Naval District, San Diego, California (1921)

June '39, Rear Adm. Joseph R. Defrees; June '40, Rear Adm. Charles A. Blakely; Dec.'41, Rear Adm. Ralston S. Holmes; Mar.'43, Rear Adm. David W. Bagley; Jan.'44, Rear Adm. Wilhelm L. Friedell

TWELFTH Naval District, San Francisco, California (1903)

Feb.'38, Rear Adm. Arthur J. Hepburn; Apr.'41, Vice Adm. John W. Greenslade#; Jan.'44, Rear Adm. Carleton H. Wright

THIRTEENTH Naval District, Seattle, Washington (1903)

July '37, Rear Adm. Edward B. Fenner#; Aug.'40, Vice Adm. Charles S. Freeman#; Nov.'42, Vice Adm. Frank J. Fletcher#; Oct.'43, Rear Adm. Sherwoode A. Taffinder#; Dec.'44, Rear Adm. Robert M. Griffin

FOURTEENTH Naval District, Pearl Harbor, Hawaii (1916)

Nov.'36, Rear Adm. Orin G. Murfin#; Apr.'40, Rear Adm. Claude C. Bloch#; Apr.'42, Rear Adm. David W. Bagley#; Feb.'43, Vice Adm. Robert L. Ghormley#; Nov.'44, Vice Adm. David W. Bagley#

FIFTEENTH Naval District, Balboa, Canal Zone (1919)

Aug.'39, Rear Adm. Frank H. Sadler#; Apr.'42, Rear Adm. Clifford E. Van Hook#; Oct.'43, Rear Adm. Harold C. Train#; Nov.'44, Rear Adm. Howard F. Kingman#

SIXTEENTH Naval District, Cavite, Philippine Islands (1919)

May '39, Rear Adm. John M. Smeallie#; Jan.'41, Rear Adm. Harold M. Bemis#; Nov.'41, Rear Adm. Francis W. Rockwell# (Temporarily inactivated, Feb.'42)

SEVENTEENTH Naval District, (Adak, temporary), Kodiak, Alaska (1944)

Mar.'44, Rear Adm. F. E. M. Whiting; Aug.'44, Rear Adm. Ralph F. Wood

POTOMAC River Naval Command (1941)

Dec.'41, Rear Adm. George T. Pettengill#; Sept.'42, Rear Adm. Ferdinand L. Reichmuth#

SEVERN River Naval Command (1941)

Dec.'41, Rear Adm. Russell Willson#; Jan.'42, Rear Adm. John R. Beardall#

Commandants, Navy Yards

Portsmouth Navy Yard, Kittery, Maine (1800)

June '36, Rear Adm. Cyrus W. Cole; June '40, Rear Adm. John D. Wainwright; June '42, Rear Adm. Thomas Withers

Boston Navy Yard, Boston, (Charlestown), Massachusetts (1800)

July '38, Rear Adm. William T. Tarrant#; July '42, Rear Adm. Wilson Brown#; Feb.'43, Rear Adm. Robert A. Theobald#; Oct.'44, Rear Adm. Felix X. Gygax#

New York Navy Yard, Brooklyn, New York (1801)

Sept.'37, Rear Adm. Clark H. Woodward#; June '41, Rear Adm. Edward J. Marquart#; June '43, Rear Adm. Monroe Kelly; Dec.'44, Rear Adm. Freeland A. Daubin

Philadelphia Navy Yard, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania (1801, 1868)

Nov.'38, Rear Adm. J. C. Townsend#; Jan.'40, Rear Adm. Adolphus E. Watson#; Aug.'42, Rear Adm. Milo F. Draemel#

Washington Navy Yard, Washington, D. C. (1800)

July '36, Rear Adm. George T. Pettengill#; Aug.'42, Rear Adm. Ferdinand L. Reichmuth#

Norfolk Navy Yard, Portsmouth, Virginia (1801)

Nov.'37, Rear Adm. Manley H. Simons; Aug.'41, Rear Adm. Felix X. Gygax; Oct.'44, Rear Adm. Carl H. Jones

Charleston Navy Yard, Charleston, South Carolina (1901)

Mar.'38, Rear Adm. William H. Allen#; June '42, Rear Adm. William A. Glassford#; May '43, Rear Adm. Jules James#

Mare Island Navy Yard, Mare Island, California (1854)

May '38, Rear Adm. David W. Bagley; Feb.'41, Rear Adm. Wilhelm L. Friedell; Jan.'44, Rear Adm. Mahlon S. Tisdale

Puget Sound Navy Yard, Bremerton, Washington (1891)

July '37, Rear Adm. Edward B. Fenner#; Aug.'40, Rear Adm. Charles S. Freeman#; Mar.'42, Rear Adm. Sherwoode A. Taffinder#; June '44, Rear Adm. Robert M. Griffin; Feb.'45, Rear Adm. Ralph W. Christie

Pearl Harbor Navy Yard, Pearl Harbor, T. H. (1908)

Nov.'36, Rear Adm. Orin G. Murfin#; Apr.'40, Rear Adm. Claude C. Bloch#; Dec.'41, Rear Adm. William R. Furlong

Cavite Navy Yard, Cavite, P. I. (1898)

May '39, Rear Adm. John M. Smeallie#; Jan.'41, Rear Adm. Harold M. Bemis#; Nov.'41, Rear Adm. Francis W. Rockwell# (Temporarily inactivated, Feb.'42)

Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy (1789)
President: Mar.'33, Franklin D. Roosevelt; Apr.'45, Harry S. Truman

Chief of Staff to Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy (1942)
July '42, Adm. William D. Leahy, (Fleet Adm., Dec.'44)

United States Fleet

Commander in Chief
Jan.'38, Adm. Claude C. Bloch; Jan.'40, Adm. James O. Richardson; Feb.'41, Adm. Husband E. Kimmel#; Dec.'41, Adm. Ernest J. King#, (Fleet Adm., Dec.'44)

Deputy Commanders in Chief, U.S. Fleet and Deputy Chiefs of Naval Operations (1944)
Oct.'44, Vice Adm. Richard S. Edwards, (Adm., Apr.'45)
Nov.'44, Adm. Royal E. Ingersoll#

Chief of Staff
May '39, Capt. Robert A. Theobald; Jan.'40, Rear Adm. Sherwoode A. Taffinder; Dec.'41, Vice Adm. Russell Willson; Sept.'42, Vice Adm. Richard S. Edwards; Oct.'44, Vice Adm. Charles M. Cooke, Jr.

Deputy Chief of Staff (1941)
Dec.'41, Rear Adm. Richard S. Edwards; Aug.'42, Rear Adm. Patrick N. L. Bellinger; Mar.'43, Rear Adm. William R. Purnell; Oct.'43, Rear Adm. Charles M. Cooke, Jr.; Oct.'44, Rear Adm. Bernhard H. Bieri

Commander in Chief

Atlantic Fleet (1941)
Feb.'41, Adm. Ernest J. King; Jan.'42, Vice Adm. Royal E. Ingersoll, (Adm., July '42); Nov.'44, Adm. Jonas H. Ingram

Pacific Fleet and Pacific Ocean Areas (1941)
Feb.'41, Adm. Husband E. Kimmel#; Dec.'41, Adm. Chester W. Nimitz, (Fleet Adm., Dec.'44)

Asiatic Fleet
(Oct.'36, Adm. Harry E. Yarnell); July '39, Adm. Thomas C. Hart X

Commanders

South Pacific Area and South Pacific Force (1942)
Apr.'42, Vice Adm. Robert L. Ghormley; Oct.'42, Vice Adm. William F. Halsey, Jr., (Adm., Nov.'42); June '44, Vice Adm. John H. Newton; Jan.'45, Vice Adm. William L. Calhoun

Commanders (continued)

Third Fleet (1944)
June '44, Adm. William F. Halsey, Jr.

Fifth Fleet (1944) (Formerly Central Pacific Force)(1943)
Aug.'43, Vice Adm. Raymond A. Spruance, (Adm., Feb.'44)

Southwest Pacific Force (1942) (Seventh Fleet)
Feb.'42, Vice Adm. William A. Glassford; Apr.'42, Vice Adm. Herbert F. Leary; Sept.'42, Vice Adm. Arthur S. Carpender; Nov.'43, Vice Adm. Thomas C. Kinkaid, (Adm., Apr.'45)

Southeast Pacific Force (1942)
Jan.'42, Rear Adm. John F. Shafroth; Dec.'42, Rear Adm. Francis E. M. Whiting; Oct.'43, Vice Adm. Harold C. Train# X

North Pacific Area and North Pacific Force (1942) (Ninth Fleet)
May '42, Rear Adm. Robert A. Theobald; Jan.'43, Rear Adm. Thomas C. Kinkaid, (Vice Adm., June '43); Oct.'43, Vice Adm. Frank J. Fletcher#

U. S. Naval Forces, Europe (1942) (Twelfth Fleet)
Apr.'42, Adm. Harold R. Stark

U. S. Naval Forces, France (1944)
Sept.'44, Vice Adm. Alan G. Kirk

U. S. Naval Forces, Northwest African Waters (1943) (Eighth Fleet)
Mar.'43, Vice Adm. Henry K. Hewitt, (Adm., Apr.'45); Apr.'45, Vice Adm. William A. Glassford

South Atlantic Fleet (1942) (Fourth Fleet)
Sept.'42, Vice Adm. Jonas H. Ingram; Nov.'44, Vice Adm. William R. Munroe

Sea Frontiers[1]

Commanders

Eastern Sea Frontier (Formerly North Atlantic Naval Coastal Frontier) (1941)
Mar.'41, Vice Adm. Adolphus Andrews#; Nov.'43, Vice Adm. Herbert F. Leary

[1] Title changed from Naval Coastal Frontier to Sea Frontier, Feb. 6, 1942

Gulf Sea Frontier (Formerly Southern Naval Coastal Frontier) (1941)
July '41, Rear Adm. William H. Allen#; June '42, Rear Adm. James L. Kauffman#; Apr.'43, Rear Adm. William R. Munroe#; Apr.'44, (Capt. H. H. J. Benson, acting)#; July '44, Rear Adm. Walter S. Anderson#, (Vice Adm., Apr.'45)

Caribbean Sea Frontier (Formerly Caribbean Naval Coastal Frontier) (1941)
July '41, Rear Adm. Raymond A. Spruance#; July '41, Vice Adm. John H. Hoover#; Aug.'43, Vice Adm. Arthur B. Cook#; May '44, Vice Adm. Robert C. Giffen#

Panama Sea Frontier (Formerly Panama Naval Coastal Frontier) (1941)
July '41, Rear Adm. Frank H. Sadler#; Apr.'42, Rear Adm. Clifford E. Van Hook#; Oct.'43, Rear Adm. Harold C. Train#; Nov.'44, Rear Adm. Howard F. Kingman#

Western Sea Frontier (Formerly Pacific Southern Naval Coastal Frontier) (1941)
July '41, Vice Adm. John W. Greenslade#; Feb.'44, Vice Adm. David W. Bagley; Nov.'44, Adm. Royal E. Ingersoll#

Northwest Sea Frontier (Formerly Pacific Northern Naval Coastal Frontier)(1941)
July '41, Rear Adm. Charles S. Freeman#; Nov.'42, Vice Adm. Frank J. Fletcher# X

Hawaiian Sea Frontier (Formerly Hawaiian Naval Coastal Frontier) (1941)
July '41, Rear Adm. Claude C. Bloch#; Apr.'42, Rear Adm. David W. Bagley#; Feb.'43, Vice Adm. Robert L. Ghormley#; Nov.'44, Vice Adm. David W. Bagley#

Philippine Sea Frontier (Formerly Philippine Naval Coastal Frontier) (1941)
July '41, Rear Adm. Harold M. Bemis#; Nov.'41, Rear Adm. Francis W. Rockwell#; (inactivated, Feb.'42 - Oct.'44); Oct.'44, Rear Adm. James L. Kauffman, (Vice Adm., Apr.'45)

Moroccan Sea Frontier (Formerly Sea Frontier Forces, Western Task Force)(1942)[2]
Nov.'42, Rear Adm. John L. Hall, Jr.; Feb.'43, Rear Adm. Frank J. Lowry; Sept.'43, Capt. Chester L. Nichols; Oct.'43, Commodore Benjamin V. McCandlish

Alaskan Sea Frontier (1944)
Mar.'44, Vice Adm. Frank J. Fletcher#

[2] Title changed from Sea Frontier Forces, Western Task Force to Moroccan Sea Frontier Forces, Feb. 17, 1943.

Administrative Reference Service Report Number 8

DEMOBILIZATION of CIVILIAN PERSONNEL BY THE U.S. NAVY AFTER THE FIRST WORLD WAR

Prepared February 1945 by BESS GLENN under the Supervision of
Dr. R.G. Albion, Recorder of Naval Administration, Secretary's Office, and
Lt. Cmdr. E. J. Leahy, Director, Office of Records Administration, of the
Administrative Office, Navy Department

Office of Records Administration · Administrative Office · Navy Department

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1. Incentives for Civilian Employees of the Navy Department: A Review of the Experience of the First World War, by Dr. Henry P. Beers. (Special Report, not for general distribution), May 1943.

2. U. S. Naval Detachment in Turkish Waters, 1919-1924, by Dr. Henry P. Beers, June 1943.

3. U. S. Naval Port Officers in the Bordeaux Region, 1917-1919, by Dr. Henry P. Beers, September 1943.

 3A. U. S. Naval Port Regulations, Port of Bordeaux, France (Reproduction of 30 page pamphlet issued 19 March 1919) July 1943.

4. The American Naval Mission in the Adriatic, 1918-1921, by Dr. A. C. Davidonis, September 1943.

5. U. S. Naval Forces in Northern Russia (Archangel and Murmansk), 1918-1919, by Henry P. Beers, November 1943.

6. American Naval Occupation and Government of Guam, 1898-1902, by Dr. Henry P. Beers, March 1944.

7. Principal Officials and Officers, Navy Department and United States Fleet, September 1, 1939 - May 24, 1944.

8. Demobilization of Civilian Personnel by the United States Navy After the First World War, by Bess Glenn, February 1945.

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I

GETTING AND KEEPING EMPLOYEES DURING WAR TIME

Any examination of the experience of the Navy Department in demobilizing its war-time civilian personnel should include a glance at the reverse side of that process - the methods by which the Department recruited and held its civilian forces during the emergency. The necessity for reducing personnel after the war brought about a natural reversal in policy, a procedure which added to the trials of the Department in separating from its pay rolls employees whom it had once so ardently sought after and cleaved to.

The movement for preparedness for war had become very strong in the nation by 1916. Even before that year the ship-building program of the Navy Department had taken on new life, and activity at the Department in Washington and throughout the naval establishment was on the ascendant, with a small but steady rise in employment. The Naval Appropriation Act of August 29, 1916, gave tremendous impetus to the expansion of the civil force employed by the Navy Department. This act appropriated $312,678,000 for the Navy, an amount never before equaled in time of peace. It provided for an unprecedented construction program which required even greater increases in civilian force. The act also created the Naval Reserve Force, part of which was used by the Department for supplementing its clerical forces when civilian personnel was unavailable because of the demands of the military services, the expansion of civil forces of other Governmental agencies, and the general rise in industrial activity, and when Congressional appropriations did not supply funds adequate for increase in civilian employment.

The coming of the war intensified and increased activities throughout the Department and the naval establishment and caused enormous expansion in the civil forces. This expansion continued throughout the duration of hostilities and reached its peak on the day the Armistice was signed. Efforts to obtain and hold adequate personnel consumed much of the thought and energies of responsible naval officials.

Personnel matters at this time were under the jurisdiction of the Assistant Secretary of the Navy. During the war and for a few years following this position was held by Franklin Delano Roosevelt, who, with his assistant, Louis McHenry Howe, took an active interest in matters relating to all classes of Navy Department employees. Policy and activities concerning the Department's employees were centralized in the Appointment Division, a part of the Secretary's Office, under the joint supervision of the Chief Clerk of the Department and the Chief of the Appointment Division. All appointments to positions in the Washington offices, and appointments to clerical and technical (IVB) positions in the entire establishment, were made in this Division. Appointments to the labor and mechanical forces in the establishment were made by the commanding officer of the activity concerned, the workers being certified by local labor boards.

Even before the entry of the United States into the war action was necessary to keep civilian employees in their Government jobs. The Army Reorganization Act of June 3, 1916, included among those exempted from militia duty "artificers and workmen employed at the armories, arsenals, and navy yards of the United States." On June 24, 1916, the Secretary of the Navy sent a telegram to navy yards and stations, to be posted on bulletin boards.[1] This telegram urged the yard and station employees to remain at their jobs, saying that their service to their country in that capacity was as important as their military service, and "to cripple the navy yard at this time is a most unpatriotic act." Such appeals on the grounds of patriotism for workers to remain at their civilian jobs rather than enlist in the armed forces furnished an ironical note in the later demobilization of civil personnel, and civilian workers, protesting the preference given to returning veterans, made full use of these early exhortations.

The Department continued to feel some agitation over the possibility that its force of skilled workers might be depleted by calls to military service or by enlistments. On July 11, 1916, Assistant Secretary Roosevelt sent out a circular letter in which he quoted a telegram from the Secretary of War authorizing the discharge from the National Guard of those members who were employees of Governmental departments or private concerns engaged on Army and

Navy contracts, the loss of whose services in a civilian capacity would be serious.[2] The Assistant Secretary called for lists of such workers who were eligible for discharge under the conditions set forth in the telegram from the Secretary of War.

Executive Order No. 2570, of April 2, 1917, exerted control over the transfers of workers by directing the Civil Service Commission to refuse examination or certification to persons except upon presentation of the written assent of the department or office in which they were employed. A later Executive Order, No. 2762, further strengthened these restrictions. Within the month following the declaration of war by the United States the Chief of Naval Operations in a letter to the Solicitor of the Navy Department stated that the Department was doing all it could to prevent skilled labor from enlisting.[3]

But despite all these efforts, patriotic fervor continued to cause a steady number of enlistments among naval civilian employees. Desire for better jobs also caused many workers to resign and take jobs elsewhere. The flux and change in Federal personnel as a whole is shown in the following letter of July 15, 1918, addressed to the Secretary of the Navy by J. A. McIlhenny, president of the Civil Service Commission, who wrote with desperate pathos:[4]

> Reports received by the Commission from time to time show that approximately fifty per cent of those who are appointed to positions in Washington resign and return to their homes after a short period of service. A turnover of fifty per cent could not possibly be borne by any commercial enterprise. It is a serious drain on the resources of the Government in the present crisis. This situation is so grave that it seems to call for the special attention of the departments for such corrective measures as may be practicable.
>
> The Commission is not in a position to make definite suggestions as to the best method of remedying this situation. It believes, however, that if each department should designate to some competent authority the work of making careful inquiry into the cause of each separation, a step in the right direction will have been taken. Each person who wishes to separate from the service might be directed to report to the official appointed for this work and make explanations as to the reasons for his desire to separate. In many cases the employees might be persuaded to reconsider and, in some instances, the cause of dissatisfaction might be removed. At least, the causes for separation could be determined by this system.
>
> The Commission's task of recruiting the civil service to meet war needs is a difficult one, under present conditions. The demand for workers of all kinds is greater than ever before in the history of the country. Through extraordinary recruiting efforts large numbers of applications are obtained. An alarming number of eligibles decline appointment. If the proportion of separations remains at fifty per cent or more, the Commission's problem must continue indefinitely.

As a result of this letter Secretary Daniels directed that persons in the Navy Department who wished to resign should, after conferring with the chief clerk, be sent to Mrs. L. R. Ernst, general secretary of the Navy Recreation League. The Department also resorted to a method less gentle than that of sympathetic "exit interviews" in its effort to hold on to its workers. On September 19, 1918, Secretary Daniels specifically directed that resignations be not approved.[5] If an employee insisted on resigning, his resignation was to be accepted, but he was to be informed that notation of his unpatriotic act would be made on his record for future reference.

Raiding of labor forces continued in spite of regulations. Firms working on Navy contracts persisted in enticing workers away from other firms engaged on similar work. Complaints on this score came to the Department, which usually replied by informing the contractor making the raids that such action was not in accord with understandings agreed to by the Shipping Board and the War and Navy Departments. In October 1918 the Secretary addressed a circular letter to outside concerns engaged on Government work, stating that navy yards were prohibited from employing men from plants working on Government contracts without the written consent of the former employer, and that the Department expected the same cooperation from firms working for the Government.[6]

II

WOMEN FILL THE CIVIL AND YEOMAN RANKS

Besides making great effort to retain its civilian personnel, the Navy Department also exploited all possible sources for recruiting new personnel, turning especially to women for the necessary replacement or increase. The act of August 29, 1916, which established the Naval Reserve Force, did not specify the sex of the citizens who were eligible for enrollment in the Force. Prior to 1924 the scale of pay for civil employees in the Navy Department was exceedingly low, and civilians were not eager to accept or retain clerical appointments when the war boom gave them opportunity for more lucrative employment elsewhere. Pay offered reservists, counting the subsistence allowance, was higher than that of the average clerical employee. Finding even before the war that its clerical needs could not be met by the Civil Service Commission with sufficient rapidity and in adequate number, the Department decided to enroll women as yeomen in the Reserve, assigning them to clerical duties. This expedient was looked upon with suspicion in some quarters. On April 14, 1917, the Army and Navy Register published the following editorial on the subject:

Misuse of Naval Reservists

> There is trouble ahead for the Navy Department unless there is a check on the tendency of the authorities to apply the legislature of the last Congress, creating a naval reserve, so as to increase the pay of civilian employees of the bureaus and at navy yards. Desirable as is an increase of pay for those who are working without regard to office hours and who are rendering valuable services at this time, it is assuredly, according to members of the naval committee at the Capitol, not in the line contemplated by the naval reserve legislation to appoint men and women as naval reservists in any of the ratings of the service and employ them in purely clerical capacities; especially when the method is utilized to increase the pay of civilian clerks. It is pointed out that such increases of pay should be done openly and by authority of Congress; otherwise the committees of the House and Senate having to do with items of expenditure in the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill are apt to file remonstrances and perhaps enact legislation that will, in the end, seriously interfere with the provisions of the naval reserve legislation.

The appearance of this editorial created a flurry in the Secretary's Office. Chiefs of bureaus were directed to investigate for any foundation of truth in the accusations made by the editorial. Mr. Daniels also called a meeting of the chiefs in his office on the afternoon of the day on which the editorial appeared.[7] The results of these investigations and deliberations are not apparent in the records of the Department, but obviously no serious complications developed.

The Marine Corps, though somewhat belatedly, decided to enroll women in its reserve for clerical duty. The Major General Commandant, on August 2, 1918, wrote to the Secretary of the Navy that the volume of clerical work at Marine Headquarters had increased four-fold, while the clerical force had only tripled.[8] The number of civil service clerks allowed was fixed by law and no appreciable increase had been allowed since the declaration of war, so that the Corps had been forced to detail enlisted men to clerical duties. "The ratio of Civil Service clerks to the enlisted clerks is about four per cent," the Commandant wrote, presumably meaning that the number of civilian clerks was four per cent of the number of enlisted clerks. So far as had been possible, he stated, the Corps had detailed men who were not of draft age or who were disqualified by some physical defect, but work had reached such a volume that it had become necessary to use some men in office work who should have been available for field service. About forty per cent of the work could be performed equally well by women, although the Commandant believed more women than men would be needed to do the same amount of work. He therefore requested authority to enroll women in the Marine Corps Reserve for clerical duty at Headquarters and at other Marine Corps offices in the United States where their services might be utilized to replace men who were qualified for active field duty. The Secretary promptly granted the permission.

Of the women reservists Secretary Daniels wrote in his book, Our Navy at War. "These women yeomen, enlisting as reservists, served as translators, stenographers, clerks, typists, on recruiting duty, and with hospital units in France. Too much could not be said of their efficiency, loyalty, and patriotism."

The Department sought the services of women also in its regular civil forces. On June 13, 1917, the Secretary issued the following instructions.[9]

> Until further notice, it is directed that, in submitting recommendations for the filling of vacancies in the clerical force, or for the appointment of additional clerical employees from civil service registers, such recommendations shall specify that requests for certifications be made for females.

A circular letter dated August 8, 1918, ordered cessation of the practice of detailing employees carried on the schedule of wages to clerical jobs in shops and offices, and directed that, on account of war conditions, women eligibles should be utilized as far as possible in order to release men for more urgent war work.[10]

Illustrative of the increase in the employment of women at navy yards and stations are the figures reported by the Commandant of the New York navy yard showing, for April 1, 1917, and November 11, 1918, the number of women employed and the kinds of work assigned to them:[11]

Women Employees at the New York Navy Yard

April 1, 1917:	November 11, 1918:
5 clerks	298 clerks.
1 telegraph operator	22 messenger girls
1 quartermaster seamstress	193 typists
1 leadingman seamstress	15 stenographers
59 seamstresses	3 assistant inspectors of tests
67 TOTAL	2 stockmen
	1 charwoman
	8 janitors
	3 quarterman sewers
	10 leadingman sewers
	275 sewers
	615 naval reservists
	1445 TOTAL

In spite of the increase in the number of women employed throughout the Department and the establishment, the Department did not place females in positions of administrative responsibility. To a request from Martin A. Morrison, president of the Civil Service Commission, for a list of women holding executive positions or positions paying $2400 or more, Assistant Secretary Woodbury replied on January 7, 1921, that the Department had no women employees receiving $2400 a year or more, and that it had only one woman holding an executive position - Miss Sara W. Buchanan, clerk at $1700 a year, who performed executive duties in the Bureau of Yards and Docks in the absence of the head of her division.[12]

Although even after the reductions of force following the Armistice the proportion of women in the civil clerical ranks continued high, most of the reduction program, and even some of the relevant legislation, provided that first reductions be made among women workers. During the reduction period women made no organized protest against being singled out in this unflattering manner, as did other special groups, but it is evident that various women's organizations were keeping a watchful eye on the fate of women in Government service. In June 1923

Miss Belle Sherwin, first vice president of the National League of Women Voters, wrote to Secretary Denby to express gratification over the passage of the Classification Act of 1923, which, she said, "establishes the principle of an efficient employment policy and of equal compensation for equal work, regardless of sex." Miss Sherwin went on to express the hope that the Department would include women in the membership of its committees on reallocation. Not Secretary Denby, but Assistant Secretary Theodore Roosevelt replied. With crisp brevity he acknowledged Miss Sherwin's communication, but made no comment on her gratifications and hopes concerning the status of women employees in the Department.[13]

III

THE DEMOBILIZATION BEGINS

Although the naval construction program continued for several years after the end of the war, the close of hostilities brought about a cessation of a considerable amount of the work performed during the war at navy yards and stations. The cessation of this work resulted in a rapid tapering off of activities throughout the naval establishment. But to most of the Department's bureaus and offices in Washington the end of the war brought an actual increase in activities relating to the immense job of winding up the war. Naval personnel had to be demobilized by the Bureau of Navigation; business relating to veterans' claims and insurance had to be attended to by the Bureau of Navigation and the Bureau of Medicine and Surgery; surplus property had to be disposed of and financial matters managed by the Bureau of Supplies and Accounts; naval hospitals had to be built by the Bureau of Yards and Docks; fleets and men had to be realigned by the Office of the Chief of Naval Operations; disciplinary matters and legal affairs, increased by the demobilization, had to be administered by the Office of the Judge Advocate General; and the ships being constructed under the continuing construction program had to be built under the care of the Bureau of Engineering and the Bureau of Construction and Repair. It was to be expected, therefore, that personnel reductions would be more immediately evident in the naval establishment than in the Department in Washington.

Officials of the Navy Department, as of the other agencies of the Government, appear to have been for months prior to the Armistice aware of the impending end of the war and of the possibility of immediate dislocation of civilian forces. But the Navy Department, except for mulling over the question of the necessity for the disenrolling of the Naval Reserve Force and the resulting loss of the yeomen engaged on clerical duty, seems to have given little thought to a post-war plan for reduction of personnel. Nevertheless, the end of the war brought immediate action from the Department concerning its civilian personnel. The first action taken did not call for any actual reduction in force, but it emphatically ordered the cessation of all increase. Two days after the signing of the Armistice, Assistant Secretary Roosevelt, in a circular letter addressed to chiefs of bureaus, boards, and offices, made the following pronouncement:[14]

> Due to the recent changes in war conditions, no further increase in force will be allowed. Commandants of naval districts, navy yards, naval stations, officers in charge of inspection offices, etc., have been notified to this effect and, also, that Sunday and overtime work shall be discontinued, except in cases of plant maintenance and extraordinary emergency under pre-war conditions.

Feeble efforts were made by certain agencies to develop a general plan which would bring about a coordinated reduction in the number of civilian employees of the whole Government with a minimum disruption of Governmental functions and as little hardship as possible to the individual worker. One instance of this effort is the appointment by the War Labor Policies Board of a Committee of Personnel Officers, consisting of representatives from the War Labor Policies Board, Food Administration, Fuel Administration, United States Employment Service, Women in Industry Service, War Department, and Navy Department.[15] The Committee met on the afternoon of November 15, 1918, to consider the subject, "Demobilizing the Civilian Personnel of the Various Departments." The meeting was called as a result of a discussion by certain officials of the War Labor Policies Board earlier that same day, in which, according to the minutes of the Committee, "the need for coordination on the part of the various departments in releasing war workers was felt to be immediate." After discussing both the existing and the future situation regarding the release of workers, the Committee voted the following resolutions:

> I. That the Departments give an early notification to the appropriate central recruiting agencies before making any separations from the service and that they endeavor to bring the employee concerned in touch with these agencies.

II. That the earliest possible notice of intended separations be given the employees concerned.

III. That there be no publicity concerning these matters at the present time.

A broader and more definite policy than that provided for in Assistant Secretary Roosevelt's circular letter of November 13, 1918, was announced in another circular letter dated November 19, 1918.[16] This directive did not call for any drastic cutting down of the force beyond that necessitated by lack of work because of cessation of war-time activities. It took cognizance of the right of returning veterans, under the Executive Order of July 18, 1918, to reinstatement, and implied that such reinstatement, in addition to lack of work, was a potential cause for discharge of employees. Other than the order for the discontinuance of any increase in civilian forces, the letter contained no mandatory provisions for reductions; it simply touched lightly upon two possible causes for discharge: lack of work, and reinstatement of veterans. More specific and forceful directions for reduction were given by Secretary Daniels in a circular letter of November 30, 1918, addressed to the Department in Washington.[17] This letter ordered actual reduction to be made and called for the accomplishment of a cut of twenty-five per cent by the end of December 1918. It also ordered the release of as many naval reservists engaged on clerical duties as could be spared. And it informed the chiefs of bureaus and other officials of the Washington offices that similar orders had been telegraphed to commandants of all yards, stations, and districts. The explicit order for a reduction of twenty-five per cent was softened by Despatch No. 16303,[18] of December 3, 1918, addressed to the naval establishment, which stated that the earlier order "should not be construed as meaning a general reduction of twenty-five per cent is mandatory but that steps must be taken to eliminate from technical, mechanical, drafting, clerical, messenger, and police forces, including naval reservists on civilian duties, those whose services may no longer be required on account of lack of work and those who have not measured up to the standard."

An Executive Order, issued on November 29, 1918, held out some hope of aid and comfort to civilian war workers separated because of reduction in forces. The Order directed that such separated workers who had been in the service less than three years, and who were recommended for further employment by the Government, should, upon request, be entered by the Civil Service Commission upon appropriate registers of eligibles for re-appointment. The Order recommended, but did not require, that Governmental agencies, in seeking new personnel, should request certifications from these reemployment registers whenever possible.

Complete figures on the immediate reduction resulting from the Secretary's orders of November 30, 1918, are not available, but it is evident that the reduction program was actually put into action. On this development the December 1918 issue of The Federal Employee, official magazine of the National Federation of Federal Employees, commented:[19]

> The Navy Department has recently issued instructions to all navy yards and stations to reduce their civil force, a reduction of twenty-five per cent to be made before January 1, 1919. Information has been received at our national headquarters that certain administrative officers, construing these instructions as mandatory, have ordered a reduction to that extent. Representation has been made to Secretary Daniels on the part of the National Federation of Federal Employees that, in the interest of justice and the well-being of the civil service, reduction in force at the navy yards and stations should be made first from the reservist force, which was brought into the service to meet the war emergency.

However generously the Federation may have interpreted orders for reduction in force, it is apparent that Congress expected real results and was prepared to do its part to help soften the blow to separated employees. Discussions were held by the legislators concerning the preparation of a special bill to provide for Federal responsibility for the payment of the railroad fare home of discharged Federal employees who had been employed in Washington, D. C., and information was sought to guide the Congress in deciding on the wisdom and practicability of this plan.

Figures compiled in the Statistical Section of the Division of Shore Establishments and Civilian Personnel in December 1944, and arranged according to the organization of the Department as it existed in 1944, show the following strength of the various Navy Department offices in Washington in civilian personnel on November 11, 1918:

Number of Civilian Employees of the Navy Department, Washington, D. C., on November 11, 1918

	TOTALS:
Office of the Secretary of the Navy.	141
Office of the Judge Advocate General (22)	
Boards and other subunits (119)	
Office of the Chief of Naval Operations	352
Communications Office (44)	
Hydrographic Office (117)	
Naval Intelligence Office (41)	
Naval Observatory (64)	
Other subunits (86)	
Bureau of Construction and Repair.	472
Bureau of Steam Engineering.	277
Bureau of Medicine and Surgery	44
Bureau of Navigation.	118
Bureau of Ordnance	96
Bureau of Supplies and Accounts	621
Bureau of Yards and Docks.	471
Marine Corps Headquarters	12
Coast Guard Headquarters	52
TOTAL.....	2656

On December 2, 1918, the Department of Labor submitted questionnaires to the departments in Washington, asking for information on the number of persons for whom Congress was to appropriate funds for transportation in the event of their dismissal. In the Navy Department these questionnaires were passed on to the various bureaus and offices, only four of which replied in full.[20] A tabulation made up from the information given by those four bureaus is of some significance as to the number of dismissals effected during the month immediately following the end of the war and the number expected to be effected during the subsequent seven months:

Name of Bureau:	Number of separations to Nov. 30, 1918:	Number of Separations Planned, Dec. 1918-June 1919							
		Dec. 1918:	Jan. 1919:	Feb. 1919:	Mar. 1919:	Apr. 1919:	May 1919:	June 1919:	TOTAL
Yards & Docks	5	5	5	15	10	5	5	5	55
Supplies & Accounts	10	90	90	125	150	115	75	40	695
Construction & Repair	20	25	10	5	5	5	5	5	80
Steam Engineering	15	97	35	30	25	25	20	20	267
TOTALS	50	217	140	175	190	150	105	70	1097

The accuracy of the figures in the table immediately above and the basis upon which they were compiled are open to question. The Bureau of Supplies and Accounts, for example, according to figures recently compiled by the Division of Shore Establishments and Civilian Personnel,

had a total of 621 civilian employees on November 11, 1918. Yet in December 1918 it estimated that it would accomplish a reduction of 695 by June 1919. Obviously there is some inconsistency here, probably caused by the inclusion of yeomen or field employees in the figures for estimated reductions. Whatever the explanation of this discrepancy, the reduction proposed by these four bureaus for accomplishment by June 1919 - a total of 1,097 - is at great variance with the reduction actually achieved by the entire Navy Department (exclusive of Marine Corps and Coast Guard) by June 30, 1919 - a total of only 381.

The four bureaus reported that they gave fifteen days notice to employees marked for separation, and that selection for dismissal was on the basis of relative efficiency, those with the lowest ratings being discharged first.

In making their reports on intended separations, the Bureaus of Supplies and Accounts and Steam Engineering broke down their figures according to sex of employees. Tabulation of these figures illustrates the preponderance of women marked for separation:

Number of Separations Planned, Men and Women, Dec. 1918 - June 1919

NAME OF BUREAU	Dec. 1918		Jan. 1919		Feb. 1919		Mar. 1919		Apr. 1919		May 1919		June 1919		TOTAL	
	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W
Supplies & Accounts	30	60	30	60	45	80	60	90	45	70	15	60	10	30	235	450
Steam Engineering	19	78	5	30	5	25	5	20	--	25	--	20	--	20	34	218
TOTAL	49	138	35	90	50	105	65	110	45	95	15	80	10	50	269	668

Other bureaus and offices of the Department, although they did not fully fill out the questionnaires, gave pertinent information concerning their policies and activities in reducing force. The Marine Corps reported that all its temporary employees were enlisted in the Marine Corps Reserve. The Office of the Judge Advocate General reported that none of its workers had been dismissed up to November 30, 1918; that, in fact, two vacancies existed because of resignations. In general it would be the policy of that Office to make dismissals in order of appointment, but the number of future dismissals was as yet undetermined. The Bureau of Ordnance gave no figures showing the number of separations made or contemplated, but simply stated that, according to the directions of the Secretary, it expected to make a reduction of twenty-five per cent by January 1, 1919, and planned even further reductions after that date. The Bureau had already accomplished a reduction of twenty per cent in its enlisted force.

The Office of Naval Records and Library reported tersely and firmly that "no increase was made in the force of this office during the war and no decrease can be made without lowering the efficiency of the office." The Office of the Chief of Naval Operations stated that it intended to make practically all its reductions from the naval reservists. The Bureau of Medicine and Surgery did not plan any dismissals from its present civilian force during the current fiscal year, and the Bureau of Navigation likewise did not expect to dismiss any civil service employees in the near future. The Board of Inspection and Survey expected no immediate dismissals, as the work of the Board was increasing because of the continuance of the naval building program and the return of vessels from foreign waters.

The questionnaire contained one significant inquiry which was answered only by the Bureau of Steam Engineering. Under the heading, "General Statement of Hardship Involved," the Bureau stated: "No case has yet come to the attention of the Bureau in which an employee has been compelled to ask for outside assistance. However, it is understood that a number of young ladies have been compelled to secure funds from home in order to return." Concerning such financial

embarrassments caused employees by dismissal from their jobs, no further evidence has been found among the records of the Navy Department. According to reminiscent memories of Government employees who worked in Washington at the time, and according to contemporary newspaper accounts, the dismissals did result in hardship and difficulties for many released Government employees, doubtless including some dismissed by the Navy Department. Many were enabled to get home only through the generous help of friends and fellow workers. The Washington, D. C., Evening Star ran the following story in its issue for November 25, 1918:

> Many young women war workers recently discharged from various bureaus here are said to be stranded and without sufficient money to pay their fare back to their homes. This situation was made the subject of an open letter by the Washington committee of the National Women's Trade Union League to Felix Frankfurter, chairman of the War Labor Policies Board.
>
> The committee complains that the women were dismissed from their employment without sufficient notice and that they were not given sufficient time to put their affairs in order. It was stated that, while the government had announced its purpose to demobilize the military forces gradually, this plan was not followed with reference to the civilian employees.
>
> Demand that the same consideration be given the civil employees as is accorded workers for private firms was made by the committee. It was stated that many of the young women had come from sections remote from Washington, had been obliged to pay excessive prices for the necessities of life, and were, therefore, without money to pay their way home.

The Federal Government made definite efforts to assist the discharged workers by paying their fare home or to another place of work, and by serving as an employment agency in their behalf. On December 2, 1918, the Secretary of the Navy transmitted to the various bureaus and offices of the Department a letter from N. A. Smyth, assistant director general of the United States Employment Service, requesting that employees whose services were no longer required be directed to file registration blanks at the office of the Service on Sixteenth and "Eye" Streets in Washington; the Secretary directed the Department to comply with this request.[21] An act of Congress, approved January 7, 1919, authorized the heads of executive departments and other Governmental agencies in the District of Columbia to furnish civilian employees receiving compensation of not more than $1400 or less than $100 a year, whose services were no longer needed, and whose employment terminated between November 11, 1918, and February 20, 1919, their railroad transportation, including sleeping car accommodation, from the District of Columbia to their homes or to other places of work. Expenses under this act were to be paid by the Navy Department from the appropriation, "Pay, Miscellaneous."

There can be no doubt that, in spite of continuing pressure of work and strenuous objection on the part of bureau chiefs and other officials, the Navy Department, upon the conclusion of the war, began an immediate reduction in force, although the effectiveness of the reduction is not immediately evident in statistical presentation because of certain complications. Replying to an inquiry dated December 9, 1918, from Clara E. Mortenson, secretary of the Committee on National Insurance of the War Labor Policies Board, the chief clerk of the Navy Department reported the following figures in a letter dated January 15, 1919:[22]

	No. of Civilian Employees on January 1, 1919	No. of Separations Accomplished During First Two Weeks in January 1919
Navy Department, Washington, D. C.	2254	93
Naval Establishment	99789	3631
TOTAL	102043	3724

IV

DISENROLLMENT OF THE YEOMAN RESERVISTS

The detail of members of the Naval Reserve Force, both men and women, to clerical duties in the Navy Department and naval establishment, made it possible for the vast amount of necessary office work to be accomplished in spite of the fact that the Civil Service Commission was not able to meet the demands of all the various Governmental agencies for additional civilian personnel. Although these reservists should be considered as entirely distinct from the civilian workers, their detail to work ordinarily performed by civilians, and their later discharge from the service, had a great influence on the regular civilian personnel. Prior to the end of the war, the Bureau of Navigation foresaw the problems which would arise in the Department and establishment upon the disenrollment of the Naval Reserve, including the yeoman on clerical duty, and issued something of a warning in a communication dated August 8, 1918, addressed to the Chief of Naval Operations, chiefs of bureaus, and commandants of all naval districts:[23]

> Upon the conclusion of the war it will become necessary for the Bureau to relieve from active duty the vast majority of the Naval Reserve Force, and this will apply to the enrolled clerical force of the Department as well as to the force serving afloat.
>
> It is requested that careful consideration be given to this condition, as far as it concerns the personnel under your command, and that suggestions covering steps to meet the situation by legislation or otherwise be submitted to the Bureau of Navigation at as early a date as possible.

On September 4, 1918, the Bureau of Navigation asked the Judge Advocate General whether existing laws would permit the retention of members of the Naval Reserve Force and Marine Corps Reserve who were employed on clerical duty, for as long as necessary to complete activities relating to the war, or to transfer to civil service status.[24] No reply to this inquiry was found in the records of the Department, but on October 30, 1918, the Bureau of Navigation asked the Judge Advocate General if the act of August 29, 1916, which established the Naval Reserve Force, contained any mandatory provision for the disenrollment of the Force immediately upon the declaration by the President of the end of the national emergency.[25] Within the week the Judge Advocate General replied, with comforting ambiguity, that there was no authority of law for the indefinite retention of members of the Naval Reserve Force after the termination of the present emergency, but that "it does not follow that all members of the Naval Reserve Force on active duty must, immediately upon the termination of the present national emergency, be instantly and in a body relieved from active duty. There is nothing in the law that demands such action, and it is unreasonable to suppose that the relief of all Naval Reserve members could be accomplished instantly without seriously disrupting the Navy and impairing its efficiency." The Judge Advocate General was of the opinion that six months might be regarded as a reasonable period within which to relieve from active duty all members of the Force.

The Naval Appropriation Act of July 11, 1919, brought to an end the force of reservist yeomen that had played so important a part in the clerical work of the Department. This act required the disenrollment of female members, except nurses, of the Naval Reserve Force and the Marine Corps Reserve, and of all reservists detailed to duty ordinarily performed by civilians, not later than thirty days after the approval of the act. It also directed that no members of the Force should thereafter be detailed to active duty on shore of a kind which was ordinarily performed by civilians. The act provided for the transfer of these disenrolled reservists, at the discretion of the Secretary of the Navy, to temporary civil appointments, and it directed that members of the Force who accepted temporary appointment should be given "an opportunity to qualify by civil service examination for certification in accordance with civil service rules to fill such vacancies as may occur." All temporary appointments made under these provisions were to terminate not later than June 30, 1920. For pay of transferred reservists the sum of $8,613,220 was appropriated.

This bill was introduced on June 12, 1919. The following day the Secretary of the Navy issued a circular letter in which he said that it had been brought to the attention of the Department that a large proportion of the naval reserve personnel did not wish to continue in the employ of the Department in a civil capacity at the rates of pay accorded civilians for work of the character on which they had been engaged as reservists.[26] The Department expected many disenrolled reservists therefore to seek more remunerative employment elsewhere. The Secretary pointed out that the bill made no provision for filling the places of reservists who either did not wish to transfer to civil status or who failed in civil service examination to qualify, and he expected that this situation would cripple the clerical work of the Department, as, under the act, it would be impossible to fill the vacancies with appointees from the registers of the Civil Service Commission. Preparatory to the disenrollment and transfer of reservists, the Secretary requested each bureau, board, and office to make a careful survey of the situation and to submit a report showing the number of reservists employed, the number intending to transfer to civil capacity, and the number who would not transfer to civil status.

Although not all the reports made in response to this request are to be found among the records of the Navy Department, a sufficient number were found to give a good idea of existing conditions. The following tabulation was compiled from the information presented in the reports:[27]

Reports on Naval Reservists Employed, to be Transferred, and Not to be Transferred

Date of Report:	Name of Office:	Number Employed:	Number to Transfer:	Number Not to Transfer:
6-19-19	Secretary's Office: Inventions	2	2	0
6-17-19	Judge Advocate General	8	4	3
6-23-19	Compensation Board	28	16	12
6-24-19	Chief of Naval Operations*	357	286	56
6-25-19	Steam Engineering	97	87	10
6-17-19	Supplies & Accounts	297	281	16
6-17-19	Allotment Office	238	212	26
6-17-19	Navigation	1281	1096	185
6-18-19	Yards & Docks	92	84	8
6-18-19	Ordnance*	86	69	12
6-19-19	Hydrographic Office	46	41	5
6-18-19	Navy Yard, New York	489	403	86
6-16-19	Navy Yard, Norfolk*	421	297	108
6-17-19	Navy Yard, Boston*	381	342	39
6-20-19	Navy Yard, Mare Island	95	70	25
	TOTAL	3918	3290	591

*Not all reservists had reported their intentions at the time the report was prepared.

It soon appeared that the expectations of the Secretary that a large number of reservists would be unwilling to transfer to civil status were without foundation. So many reservists, in fact, reported their intention to transfer and continue in the service of the Department that complications arose concerning funds for their pay. A month after the approval of the act providing for the transfer of reservists on clerical duty, the Secretary found it necessary to announce in a circular letter an overobligation of $3,500,000 of the appropriation of $8,613,220 for "Pay, Reservists Transferred." Immediate steps, he said, would be necessary to wipe out this overobligation by drastic reduction of the force of reservists taken over in civilian capacity. It was hoped that the overobligation would be removed by normal separations based on the completion of certain work scheduled to be finished within a short time. The Secretary asked that careful consideration be given to the necessity for filling any vacancy, and that the efficiency and importance of the work of reservists in civil status be scrutinized.[28]

The presence of reservists in the clerical force of the Department obscures and complicates statistics on the size and rate of reduction of the civilian force of the Navy Department. In many of its figures on the number of civilian employees, the Department made no distinction between civilians and yeomen, but lumped them all in one figure which, unless analyzed, would appear to indicate an increase in civilian clerical force during the war that is contrary to the facts. The post-war transfer of disenrolled yeomen to a civil status, completed eight months after the end of the war, resulted in an increase in the number of civilians employed in the clerical force of the Department. But at the same time the total clerical force, which before August 1, 1919, had consisted of both reservists and civilians, actually diminished. This diminution was brought about by the general reduction program of the Department and by the failure of some reservists to transfer, or, once transferred, to retain their new civil status. Statements of bureau chiefs included in the Annual Reports for 1919 emphasize this situation. The chief of the Bureau of Supplies and Accounts reported: "In general, however, there has been no slackening of effort to reduce the work and the organization to a normal NAVY basis, as is evidenced by the fact that the force in S. and A. has been reduced from a total of 1,821 employees 11 November 1918, consisting of 1,052 Reservists, 593 civilians and 176 officers, to a force of 818 to-day - 778 civil service employees and 40 officers; thus making a net reduction of 53 per cent in the clerical force and 77 per cent in the number of officers on duty here."

The chief of the Bureau of Yards and Docks stated: "The maximum personnel was reached on November 11, 1918, and was as follows: Nine naval officers, 15 reserve officers, 228 reservists, 352 technical employees, 134 clerks, messengers, laborers, and charwomen (exclusive of reservists). At the present time the bureau's force consists of the following: Nine naval officers, 4 reserve officers, 173 technical employees, 170 clerks (including reservists transferred), messengers, laborers, and charwomen. These figures indicate a reduction in the bureau's personnel since November 11, 1918, of 51.8 per cent."

During the economic depression which followed the end of the war, in the resulting intense competition for jobs, the disenrolled Yeoman (F) found herself in an ironic situation. Her right to veteran's preference was questioned by both the veteran returning from active combat duty and by the non-veteran civil employee of long years of service. To one such protestation against preferential privileges for women reservists, directed to Assistant Secretary Theodore Roosevelt by J. Allan McDonald, of Wilmington, Delaware, the Assistant Secretary replied:[29] "You are advised that women enlisted in the Navy during the World War in the rating Yeoman (F) whose discharge was not dishonorable or for bad conduct are, under the Act of July 11, 1919, and the Executive Order of March 3rd, 1923, entitled to veteran preference to the same extent and in the same manner as men who served in the Army, Navy, or Marine Corps."

V

REDUCTION IN CIVIL FORCES

Although the Navy Department reported a reduction of 3,724 in its civilian forces during the first two weeks of January 1919 - a number of considerable size - the Department continued to drive even harder on its retrenchment program during the months to follow. ALNAV 28, dated January 20, 1919, was emphatic in its call for reduction in force and economy in all expenditures throughout Washington headquarters and the entire naval establishment.[30] The ALNAV opened with a strong and comprehensive statement of policy: "It is the policy of the Navy Department that the most rigid economy be practiced in the employment of personnel and purchase of material in all offices and bureaus of the Navy Department and of the Marine Corps in Washington and in all navy yards and stations in the naval establishment." Secretary Daniels made it forcefully clear that he expected his earlier directives regarding reduction in force to be, in his own words, "strictly carried out." No requisitions were to be approved by the chief of any bureau or the commandant of the Marine Corps until the absolute necessity for filling the position had been proved. The message ended: "Deficiencies of any kind are especially prohibited. Every effort must be made to turn into the Treasury the largest possible unobligated balance."

Despite such vigorous exhortations from the Secretary of the Navy, statistics show that the total amount of reductions in civilian forces accomplished between November 11, 1918, and June 30, 1919, was exceedingly small. In his Annual Report for 1922 the Secretary gave the total civilian employment of the naval establishment at large on December 31, 1918, as 123,435, and indicated in a footnote that 15,000 naval reservists were included in that figure. Deducting the number of reservists, the figure for civilian employees in the naval establishment is 108,435. In the same tabulation the Secretary gave 118,233 as the total for the civil force employed in the naval establishment on June 30, 1919, and indicated in a footnote that this figure included 10,000 naval reservists. Deducting the number of reservists, the figure for civilian employees becomes 108,233 - a difference of only 202 between the figures given for December 31, 1918, and June 30, 1919. In contrast to these figures and to what one might normally expect because of additional work brought by the aftermath of war, reductions in civilian force at departmental headquarters at Washington were fairly extensive for the six months immediately following the end of the war. Figures compiled in December 1944 by the Statistical Section of the Division of Shore Establishments and Civilian Personnel of the Navy Department, give 2,592 as the total number of civilian employees in departmental offices in Washington (exclusive of the Marine Corps and Coast Guard) on November 11, 1918, and 2,211 for June 30, 1919 - a total reduction of 381 employees, or about fourteen per cent.

Reductions continued in the offices and bureaus during the subsequent fiscal year, under pressure of curtailed appropriations, but total figures for the civil force of departmental offices in Washington show an actual increase in number of civilians employed. This increase was brought about by the transfer of reservists, between June 30, 1919, and June 30, 1920. The figures recently compiled in the Division of Shore Establishments and Civilian Personnel show that in the Washington offices there were 2,211 civilian employees on June 30, 1919, and 3,209 on June 30, 1920. In this same period, however, a considerable reduction, according to the Annual Report for 1922, appears to have been accomplished in the naval establishment: a decline from 108,233 civilian workers on June 30, 1919, to 87,312 on June 30, 1920 - a total reduction of almost 21,000 persons.

Other efforts at economy in personnel expenditures were made by the Department through halting promotions. On August 26, 1919, a circular letter from Acting Secretary Franklin Roosevelt stated that, because of greatly curtailed appropriations, the Department had adopted the policy of making no promotions "except those incident to a vacancy occurring in a higher grade when the employees recommended for promotion take over the higher grade work."[31] This direction brought forth a number of protests from members of Congress, among them Ernest R. Ackerman, Isaac R. Sherwood, John B. Baker, F. H. Gillette, F. E. Doremus, and James O'Connor. Other protests were received from officials of labor union locals. To all these protests Secretary Daniels replied with courtesy and firmness that, owing to the greatly curtailed appropriations made by Congress for the conduct of the work of the naval establishment

during the current year, the Department had been obliged to take the action indicated in the circular letter.

Organized labor did not stand idle during the Department's activities in discharging civilian employees, especially when the results of the Disarmament Conference seemed to threaten deeper and more extensive personnel cuts. In February 1922 Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor, accompanied by other officials and representatives of the Federation and of the International Association of Machinists, called on Secretary Denby and discussed with him the effect of the Department's reduction policy on workers at navy yards and stations. On departing, Mr. Gompers left with the Secretary an undated and unsigned memorandum, the tone of which is summed up in its statement, "We support with all our strength, in accordance with long established principles, the disarmament proposals which have been written into treaty form, but we hope that it will not be necessary to visit this blessing to all humanity upon the heads of those who have rendered such excellent service to our government and to our people as a punishment." Besides presenting objections to a general reduction program, the memorandum made a number of definite and constructive suggestions through which work could be assured for employees of the Department at its shore establishments. Something of a public works program was proposed, calling for such activities as (1) concentration on the maintenance, conversion, reconditioning, modernizing, and modification of existing naval craft and equipment; (2) allocation to navy yards of all activities preparatory to the dismantling and scrapping of those vessels slated for disposal; (3) construction at navy yards of new vessels already authorized and of the new vessels which would be required as a result of the revised naval building program resulting from the Washington Naval Conference; (4) establishment of an agency in the Navy Department which would actively seek work from other Federal agencies for naval industrial plants; and (5) performance of all work of maintenance, reconditioning, and new construction of vessels for the Emergency Fleet Corporation, Light House Bureau, and Harbor Board.[32]

In reply to this memorandum Secretary Denby wrote a lengthy letter to Mr. Gompers, taking up the proposals point by point, showing that some of the activities suggested were already being carried on by the Department, and giving clear reasons why others were either impractical or impossible.

For several years following the Armistice the Department continued to feel pressed and harassed by reduced appropriations. On October 25, 1919, the Secretary informed chiefs of bureaus and offices that vacancies which existed or which might occur were not to be filled unless the authority of the Department in writing were first secured, adding, "and this authority will not be granted unless good and sufficient reasons are presented for filling such vacancies." The overobligation of the appropriation, "Pay, Reservists Transferred," and of nearly every other appropriation of the Navy Department required this action. The Secretary directed that selection for reduction in force be first made from among transferred reservists who had not qualified under civil service rules for probational appointment.[33] The decline in the number of former reservists reported as employed in the civil force of the Washington offices - 2,290 on September 30, 1919, and 1,109 on June 30, 1920 - seems to indicate that drastic cuts were made among the former reservists.

Another group singled out in the reduction program was the aliens employed by the Government after a suspension of the civil service rule requiring United States citizenship of applicants for Government service. On June 13, 1921, ALNAV 50 was issued, calling for reduction on the rolls through the separation of all probational or absolute aliens whenever citizen eligibles or qualified citizen temporary appointees became available.[34] This order met with the approval of the American Federation of Labor, although the Federation would have preferred more drastic action, and at its forty-first annual convention held in June 1921 passed a resolution recommending that all so-called friendly aliens in the employ of the Government be called on immediately to qualify for citizenship, and that all who failed to do so be summarily dismissed.[35]

At least one important official in the Department appears to have made a searching personal investigation of personnel conditions obtaining in his organization. In an informal personal memorandum of November 6, 1919, to Secretary Daniels, Rear Admiral Samuel McGowan,

chief of the Bureau of Supplies and Accounts, wrote:[36] "I have just completed a careful survey of the personnel situation here in line with what you said to me a little while ago about the possibility of our having too many clerks." The Admiral went on to report that he had unearthed a lieutenant commander who for a considerable time had had as his sole duty activities as secretary and treasurer of the Navy Mutual Aid Society. The Admiral had arranged with the Bureau of Navigation to have this officer detached from the Bureau of Supplies and Accounts. Another of the Admiral's discoveries was the presence of a female clerk who had been devoting much of her time to paper work for the treasurer of the Navy Relief Society. McGowan had issued orders for the clerk to cease and desist from this outside work, whereupon the treasurer of the Society had resigned, and the president of the Society asked the Bureau for the name of an officer who could do the work. To this request Admiral McGowan replied that it seemed to him that the Society needed a clerk, not a naval officer.

During all this painful time of civilian reductions, the Department of Labor stood ready and eager to come to the aid of the discharged civil servants of the Government. On April 24, 1920, W. B. Wilson, Secretary of Labor, wrote to the Secretary of the Navy that his Department understood that lack of funds would require the Navy Department to discontinue the services of an extensive number of its clerical force before July 1.[37] "If our understanding is correct," wrote Secretary Wilson, "it is assumed that the majority of these will consist of young women who came to Washington from various parts of the United States to perform war work and upon their release will desire to return to their respective communities for reemployment." He went on to offer the services of the United States Employment Service at its approximately 280 offices in all large centers throughout the country. The Navy Department, in spite of its determination to reduce force, was itself also concerned with the welfare of its employees, and strove to follow humanitarian principles in its procedure of selecting individuals for dismissal. On June 10, 1921, Assistant Secretary Theodore Roosevelt wrote to commandants of navy yards and naval stations:[38] "On account of the reduction in appropriations it will be unquestionably necessary to cut down our working forces in the various yards. At this time conditions industrially through the country are exceedingly bad and it will, therefore, be really difficult for those who are discharged to find new employment. For the above reasons the Department desires that the commandant will carefully review each case before discharges are made effective and will, whenever possible under the regulations, decide in favor of retaining those men who have families or other dependents. Furthermore, attention is directed to the fact that the Department desires American citizens and veterans given preference."

Despite cries from bureau chiefs that reductions were crippling the ability of their staffs to perform efficiently and quickly the increased functions brought by the aftermath of war, Congress continued to draw tight the purse strings and to keep a controlling hand on the size of Navy Department civil personnel. Early in 1920 Assistant Secretary Franklin Roosevelt took full advantage of an opportunity to lay on some good blows against this practice of Congress. Replying to a letter from Clifford Ireland, dated April 5, 1920, asking for suggestions for means of placing the Governmental establishment on a more modern, scientific, and businesslike basis, for the purpose of increasing efficiency and decreasing appropriations, Assistant Secretary Roosevelt replied:[39]

> First you ask me, "Could any reorganization or reform be introduced in your Department, through legislation or otherwise, tending to increase its efficiency and decrease appropriations by the establishment of more modern business methods?" The answer to that is primarily this: The entire system of relationship which exists between Congress and the Executive Departments is fundamentally wrong. I made an offer this spring to the Appropriations Committees of both the House and Senate, telling them I would tomorrow discharge fifteen per cent of the employees of the Navy Department if they, the Committees, would give me complete authority to take one half of the salaries of the employees so discharged and add this one half to the salaries of the other eighty-five per cent of the employees still left in the Department. In other words, I would guarantee a monetary saving to the Government of the pay of seven and one-half per cent of the employees of the Navy Department if I could use the other seven and one-half per cent where it would do the most good. Of course, however,

under the present system Congress would not think of giving executive discretion of this kind.

Congress, for various reasons, has so tied the hands of the executive officers of the Government that they have no discretion in the fundamental questions of employment. I do not believe, of course, that the Civil Service System should be wiped out or that we should return to the spoils sytem, but there is altogether too much assumption in this Government that executive officers will use their authority for political purposes. My own wonder is that, considering the existing circumstances, the employees of the Government are as efficient as they actually are. As conditions exist, Congress legislates for every little minute item of employment. It tells me that I can have in a certain office, for instance, ten clerks, of which one can get $1,800 per year; two can get $1,600 per year; two can get $1400 per year; two can get $1,200 per year; two can get $1,000 per year; and one can be a messenger at $720 per year. In the first place, the scale of pay of employees is entirely inadequate, especially so at the top and the bottom. In the second place, the needs of different offices vary very much. One office may require a large number of low-grade clerks, another office may require a small number of highly-paid specialists. We ought to have better pay and a system of promotion based on efficiency and not necessarily longevity of service or on hard and fast individual rules laid down by appropriations bills from year to year.

One of the first steps to improve matters would be to enact into law the recommendations, or at least most of them, made by the Reclassification Committee of the House and Senate which has already made its report. I do not agree with everything in the report, of course, but on the whole it is a step in the right direction.

About three years after Mr. Roosevelt had written this letter, the Classification Act was passed, putting into effect several of the reforms so effectively recommended by the Assistant Secretary, and bringing great improvement to the lot of the average Government employee. And beginning with the Naval Appropriation Act for the fiscal year 1924, Congress ceased the practice of legislating for specific numbers and salaries of clerks allowed individual offices.

Vigorous protests were made annually by officials in the Department over the continued reduction in forces. The Bureau of Navigation was swamped with work incident to the wholesale disenrollment of the Naval Reserve Force and the general demobilization of naval forces, and with work for the Veterans' Bureau relating to service records of veterans of the European War. The Bureau of Yards and Docks was busy with the planning and construction of naval hospitals for the veterans. The Bureau of Medicine and Surgery was deluged with the receipt and filing of medical records from the naval districts and with work in connection with claims of ex-service men under the War Risk Insurance Act. Work in other bureaus had also increased, and the reduced forces of many of the operating units of the Department were inadequate for keeping up with the mounting work. To carry the Department through this critical situation various emergency measures were taken. Funds were allotted by the Veterans' Bureau for clerks to be engaged in the Bureau of Navigation and the Bureau of Medicine and Surgery on work exclusively for the Veterans' Bureau. For its work of furnishing the adjutant generals of the various States with the service records of the citizens of those States who had been in naval service during the war, a special appropriation for the necessary additional personnel was made by Congress. The Veterans' Bureau allotted 35 clerks to the Bureau of Yards and Docks for work relating to the construction of naval hospitals. By special permission of Congress, the Bureau of Navigation was permitted to use enlisted personnel in clerical work.

The high rate of turnover in civilian personnel which existed during the war continued throughout the early 1920's, and with dismissals and resignations, the force was in a steady state of flux. It was hoped by bureau chiefs that one cause of the turnover, that of low pay, would be eliminated by the passage of the Classification Act and the increase in salaries of the civil employees. Throughout all the busy travail of the Navy Department, the size of its civilian force continued to shrink. The following tabulation, prepared in December 1944 by the Statistical Section of the Division of Shore Establishments and Civilian Personnel, shows the downward movement in the size of the Department's civil force in Washington offices for more than a decade

following the first World War:

Number of Civilians Employed in Navy Department Headquarters Offices, Washington, D. C., 1918-1931
(Exclusive of Marine Corps and Coast Guard Headquarters)

November 11, 1918	2592
June 30, 1919	2211
June 30, 1920	3209 *
June 30, 1921	2371
June 30, 1922	2198
June 30, 1923	2008
June 30, 1924	1932
June 30, 1925	2025
June 30, 1926	1940
June 30, 1927	1923
June 30, 1928	1911
June 30, 1929	1960
June 30, 1930	2004
June 30, 1931	2007

* This increase was caused by the transfer of yeomen from reservist status to civil status.

Comparable figures showing civilian employment in the naval establishment outside of the Washington offices are not available. Figures taken from a tabulation in the Secretary's Annual Report for 1922 indicate the following numbers for the period June 30, 1918, to October 1, 1921:

June 30, 1918	99,028
December 31, 1918	108,435
June 30, 1919	108,233
June 30, 1920	87,312
October 1, 1921	59,640

VI

SPREADING THE WORK

The industrial depression following the war brought added difficulties and complications to the Department in its effort to reduce its civil forces. Because of the tremendous size of the forces employed at navy yards and naval stations, as compared to the force working in the departmental offices in Washington, these difficulties and complications are especially apparent in connection with the reduction of forces at the shore establishments. The Department was reluctant to add to the serious unemployment situation by throwing additional thousands out of work, but with an ungenerous Congress and an administration committed to economy, the Department found itself in an uncomfortable devil-and-deep-blue-sea position. A partial answer to the dilemma was to spread the work by shortening the work week and by the discontinuance of overtime work.

On the day the Armistice was signed Secretary of the Navy Daniels conferred with Secretary of War Baker and Chairman Hurley of the Shipping Board, and the three agreed that all overtime and Sunday work on Government contracts should stop immediately. This decision was announced at once in the newspapers, and in Despatch No. 13311 the Secretary of the Navy on November 11, 1918, sent the following order to commandants of naval establishments:[40] "Discontinue immediately all work in excess of eight hours per diem except such as may be necessary due to emergency conditions as obtained prior to declaration of war. Also discontinue overtime work on part of electrical, drafting, inspection, messenger force, etc." Two days later another order was issued calling for the immediate stoppage of all Sunday and overtime work throughout the Navy Department and naval establishment.[41] The order for the discontinuance of the seven-day week was repeated in a circular letter dated December 21, 1918.[42]

The six-day week continued in effect in the naval establishment until September 16, 1920, when, urged by labor organizations and organizations of Federal employees, and goaded by the inescapable necessity to retrench, the Department instituted a work week of five and a half days.[43] The work week was shortened still further on July 14, 1921, upon the issuance of ALNAVSTA 3, calling for a five-day week by the closing of navy yards, naval stations, and offices throughout the service on Saturday.[44] The offices of the Department in Washington were excepted from this order and therefore they continued on the six-day week, with four-hour Saturdays during the summer months. Cacophonous comments poured into the Department in response to the order for the five-day week, the majority protesting, the minority trying to shout down the majority. Dissident opinion came from many officials in the naval establishment itself, who pointed out the impossibility of a blanket application of the ruling. What, they asked, of hospitals? of laundries? of station libraries? of the surveillance activities of agents of the Office of Naval Intelligence? of the Central Sales Organization at the Washington Navy Yard, where Saturday closing hours would interfere with one of the best days for the sale of surplus property? In response to some of these protests Assistant Secretary Theodore Roosevelt made exception to the ruling; in other cases, such as that of the civil Intelligence agents, he recommended staggering the hours.

The commandant of the Boston navy yard asked for, and was refused, permission to keep his power-plant force on a seven-day week. The commandant of the New York navy yard requested resumption of the six-day week for all his force.[45] Prior to July 1, 1921, he wrote, his total yard roll had been about 10,000. Successive discharges had reduced the force to about half that number. Pursuant to instructions the men recently discharged had been given to understand that these reductions were permanent and that it would be to their advantage to seek employment elsewhere. The commandant advocated the return to the six-day week because wage reductions, discharges, and reductions in working days presented a serious problem to the average employee, and he felt that the welfare and contentment of the 5,000 employees then on the rolls merited serious consideration. The Department was unmoved by this plea.

Members of Congress, sensitive to the appeals of constituents stung to protest by cuts in earnings, wrote to the Secretary inquiring about the necessity for the five-day week. Congressman Clark Burdick, of Rhode Island, suggested that draftsmen and clerks at the Newport Naval Torpedo Station be returned to a six-day week, and that the station's furloughed employees be reinstated for a five-day week.[46] To this the Department replied that the five-day week had been instituted to save a day's work for each employee and to permit the retention of a certain number of employees who under the six-day week would have had to be discharged because of the shortage of appropriations. Work at the Newport station did not warrant any exception to the ruling.

Congressman Burdick wrote again, this time to ask for the reinstatement of the six-day week at the Naval War College and Naval Training Station at Newport, indicating that Congress had made specific appropriation for those stations sufficient to finance the longer work week.[47] Assistant Secretary Theodore Roosevelt replied virtuously and in the spirit of the time that no exception could be made in these cases, "as it must be remembered that the present administration is committed to a policy of rigid economy. All existing appropriations are to be considered the maximum amounts that may be expended, and any sums which may be saved revert to the Treasury for the general good of the country's finances, because of the burden of taxation upon the people, and the fact that the expenditures of the Government are far in excess of its income."

Representative John H. Smithwick, of Florida, expressed a particular interest in the welfare and happiness of the employees of the Naval Air Station at Pensacola, and requested, because of the approach of Christmas, that they be given full-time work during December in order to be able to provide more effectively for a merry Christmas for their families.[48] In his reply to this sentimental appeal, the Assistant Secretary dryly presented the economic and financial bases of the Department's decision for the five-day week, and stated that there was no justification for making any exception at Pensacola.

Labor unions, for the most part, expressed great dissatisfaction with the shortened work week, although opinions among employees themselves conflicted. Employees at the naval stations at Cavite and Olongapo transmitted through their commandant a petition for exemption from the five-day week, on the ground that employees at those stations had not been granted increases in pay allowed employees in the continental United States, yet their rents and living costs had continued to increase.[49] Secretary Denby refused the petition.

In May 1922 the shop committees of outside shipfitters, shipfitters inside, gas welders and helpers at Puget Sound conveyed to their commandant their disapproval of the intention of the Bremerton Chamber of Commerce, as reported in the local press, to launch a movement for the return of the six-day week.[50] Employees of the clerical, drafting, inspection, and messenger forces at the Key West Station asked for a return to the six-day week because of low pay, increased living costs, and large numbers of resignations, and because private corporations had not caused any reduction in pay of their employees doing similar work.[51] The Secretary of the Maryland Federation of Labor, Henry F. Broening, wrote to Representative J. Charles Linthicum, requesting him to call to the attention of the Secretary of the Navy the desire of the employees at navy yards to return to a work week of five and a half days.[52]

In June 1922 the executive council of Great Lakes Local No. 167, National Federation of Federal Employees, passed resolutions[53] setting forth the fact that employees at yards and stations had sustained drastic and repeated reductions in pay through (1) deprivation of the bonus of $240 a year granted Departmental workers in Washington; (2) curtailment of their working period to five days a week; and (3) sharp reductions imposed by the pay adjustment of September 1921. The council considered that conditions no longer justified the five-day week. Acute dissatisfaction was felt, the council stated, among yard and station workers over these cuts and the fact that the employees of the Navy Department in Washington continued to have a full working period, Congressional bonus, and Saturday half holiday with pay during the summer. The council resolved to request the Secretary of the Navy to authorize a return to a normal working period of five and a half days a week from June 15 to September 15 of

each year, and to six days a week for the remaining months of the year - the schedule followed in the Washington offices.

These resolutions were approved by the commandant of the Great Lakes Naval Training Station, and were transmitted by him to the Secretary of the Navy, who in his reply gave the customary statements concerning the reasons for the five-day week and the necessity for its continuance.

Toward the end of 1922 employment conditions throughout the country appeared to improve. Resignations at yards and stations became frequent, as employees, dissatisfied with reduced earnings resulting from the curtailed work week, were accepting work at better pay in private concerns. The yards began to experience difficulty in obtaining the necessary skilled labor for their operations. The Department had concluded, after giving it a ten-month trial, that the week of five and a half days was uneconomical, although that was the length of the work week most favored by labor organizations and individual employees. It found the five-day week only slightly preferable. On the basis of this experience, and because of the improvement in the economic condition of private industry, on November 15, 1922, the Secretary of the Navy through ALNAVSTA 13 ordered the resumption of the six-day week throughout the naval establishment, effective December 1, 1922.[54]

The protestations from organized labor which arose against this order were as numerous and vigorous as those which had resulted from the order for the five-day week. To these protests the Secretary replied that the five-day week had been adopted only as a temporary expedient for keeping in employment as many men as possible and had been intended to remain in force only until employment conditions in the country improved and the excess number of employees at shore establishments could be absorbed by private industry. The Secretary expressed the belief that his order for the return to the six-day week would result in economic gain for the country and would assist in the return to normalcy.[55]

VII

THE RETURNING VETERAN AND HIS JOB - REINSTATEMENT

One of the fundamental problems of the demobilized veteran of the first World War was to get back his job and, once he had it, to keep it. On both these points the civilian employee of the Federal Government who had been in the military service of his country in that war was given tremendous aid through executive directives and statutory regulations. Later stagnation in the industrial life of the nation, and the long-continued need for reduction in the civilian forces of the Government, to a considerable extent circumvented the efforts of the President and of Congress and undermined the economic security of the returned members of the fighting forces.

Efforts of the Government in behalf of veterans of the war with Germany who were former Government employees developed along three lines: (1) restoration to the job he had left to enter the armed service; (2) special rights to reinstatement in the classified civil service; and (3) special rights to retention of his job during reduction in force.

Early evidence of special consideration to be given former Federal employees who had fought in the first World War is to be found in Executive Order No. 2917, issued on July 18, 1918, which stated: "A person leaving the classified civil service to engage in the military or naval service of the Government during the present war with Germany and who has been honorably discharged may be reinstated in the civil service at any time within five years after his discharge, provided that at the time of reinstatement he has the required fitness to perform the duties of the position to which reinstatement is sought."

Demobilization of naval forces began promptly after the Armistice, and even before the Armistice members of the service were discharged for various reasons. Within the month following the end of the war inquiries from veterans concerning their status began to raise problems for the Navy Department. On November 16, 1918, the commandant of the Thirteenth Naval District asked for information on this point.[56] A week later the commandant at the Mare Island navy yard reported that he had received a number of such inquiries from ex-clerical employees.[56] In some cases, he said, the positions had already been filled by men or women, and therefore no vacancy existed in the office in which the veteran had formerly been employed. The commandant requested a statement of the Department's policy for reinstating former employees in accordance with the Executive Order of July 18, 1918.

Assistant Secretary Franklin Roosevelt, on December 11, 1918, wrote to the commandant of the Thirteenth Naval District and to the commandant of the Mare Island yard, giving instructions to cover this situation.[56] Employees who had resigned to enter the military or naval service of the United States in the war against Germany were to be reinstated to any existing vacancies or to any additional positions that might be authorized. If no vacancy existed at the time of the request for reinstatement, favorable action was not to be taken until such a vacancy occurred or a new position should be authorized. Mr. Roosevelt called attention to the Department's Despatch No. 16303, of December 3, 1918, which directed the elimination of those employees who had not met standards of efficiency.[57]

On December 9, 1918, the United States Employment Service telegraphed from Camp Upton, New York, to the Secretary of the Navy: "What provisions is your department making for reinstatement of honorably discharged soldiers who resigned civil positions to enter the army?"[58] Assistant Secretary Roosevelt wired back: "Under Executive Order July 18 Navy Department hopes to be able to provide for reinstatement of employees who entered military or naval service to such vacancies as may occur from time to time."[58]

It is evident that during the first few months of the influx of demobilized veterans into the economic life of the nation the Navy Department, strongly conscious of the permissive

quality of Executive Order No. 2917, felt no mandatory obligation to reinstate immediately the returning veteran, and considered as prerequisites for reinstatement the existence of a vacancy and an efficiency rating favorable to the veteran.

In late December 1918, the Navy Department asked the Civil Service Commission for information as to the procedure to be followed, under the Executive Order of July 18, 1918, in the reinstatement of employees in the navy yard service who had been employed through labor boards and who had resigned to enter the armed services.[59] The following January John A. McIlhenny, president of the Civil Service Commission, replied with a full statement of a procedure based on recommendations of W. D. Bergman, chief of the Appointment Division of the Navy Department, H. L. Fisher, secretary of the Fourth Civil Service District, and other employees of the Commission who had a knowledge of navy yard regulations.[59]

In summary, this procedure provided that, under the Executive Order cited, a former navy yard employee, classified or unclassified under Groups I (unskilled laborers), II (apprentices, helpers, and other semi-skilled laborers), or III (skilled or journeyman tradesmen), of the navy yard regulations, who had left his work to enter the military or naval service, could be immediately reinstated to his former position or appropriate position if honorably discharged from that service. A reexamination should be made by the yard physician in cases where the discharge certificate did not show the veteran to be physically fit, in order to ascertain his physical condition.

The procedure provided that, upon receipt of the request of the former employee for reinstatement, the labor board should make inquiry of the heads of yard departments to determine whether his services were needed for immediate employment, and, if not, whether it was desired that his name be placed on a reinstatement list to be certified when men were needed in the particular trade. If this inquiry indicated an immediate need for the services of the veteran, he should be reemployed at once. If there were no immediate need for his services, his name should be entered on a reinstatement list containing names of veterans for whose services there was no immediate need, in a relative order according to marks given when separated from the navy yard service, or, in cases of equality in such marks, according to date of original appointment. Certification was to be made from the reinstatement lists before employees were drawn from the furlough, preference, or general lists. If, because of the separation marks of a former employee seeking reinstatement, the yard departments did not request either his immediate reinstatement or the entry of his name on the reinstatement list, the reemployment of such a veteran should be governed by the general navy yard regulations, or he should be required to file application and compete in a new examination. A former employee could be reinstated at a yard other than that from which he had separated, but the labor board at the yard at which reinstatement was requested was either to require the discharge card from the yard from which the applicant was separated, or otherwise to verify the employee's record at the yard of former employment. Reinstatement under the Executive Order, in the opinion of the Commission, was subject to Section IX of the civil service law, limiting the number of members of the same family in the classified service.

This procedure, as set forth by the Civil Service Commission, almost wholly vitiated any effect the Executive Order might have had on immediate reinstatement of veterans, as it imposed certain conditions of need for the veteran's service and qualifications of efficiency upon which the reinstatement depended. But the procedure was accepted by the Navy Department and was promulgated in a circular letter of January 21, 1919, to commandants and industrial managers of navy yards and naval stations, inspectors of ordnance in charge, and other like officials.[59] No mention was made in the procedure or in the circular letter concerning the creation of a vacancy, where none existed, by the discharge of the non-veteran incumbent, in order to make possible the reinstatement of the veteran. But that possibility, with certain considerations of relative efficiency, was presented in a circular letter of January 27, 1919, addressed to certain administrative officials of the departmental Washington offices and of the naval establishment.[59] This circular letter directed that reinstatement of employees in the navy yard service under Groups I, II, and III should be made to fill either a vacancy or an additional position created through an increase in force necessitated by

additional authorized work. The letter stated. "When no increase in force is necessary and no vacancy exists, consideration shall be given to the efficiency of the members of the force and, if found that any member of the force is less efficient than the applicant, his services shall be terminated in order to provide the necessary vacancy. In cases of equal efficiency as between a member of the force and the applicant for reinstatment, preference shall be given to the employee returning from military or naval service." The same procedure was directed to be applied also to requests of veterans for reinstatement in the clerical, technical, drafting, messenger, and police force.

According to instructions from the Civil Service Commission passed on to the Washington offices and the naval establishment in a circular letter of February 17, 1919, the reinstatement of a veteran into the clerical, technical, drafting, messenger, and police forces was only temporary until certification of reinstatement had been issued by the Commission following the requisition by the Department for such certificate.[59] This instruction was later modified following an opinion of the Attorney General pronounced the following April.

The Navy Department, in its early procedures, attempted to fulfill the provisions of the Executive Order of July 18, 1918, without creating any increase in civil forces except on the basis of additional authorized work, and without lowering the standards of efficiency. A change in this early procedure was brought about by the mandatory wording of an act approved on February 25, 1919, which provided that "all former Government employees who have been drafted or enlisted in the military service of the United States in the war with Germany shall be reinstated on application to their former positions, if they have received an honorable discharge and are qualified to perform the duties of the position." Directions based upon this statutory order were promulgated throughout the entire Navy Department and naval establishment, in a circular letter[59] of the Secretary of the Navy dated March 7, 1919, which amended the earlier directions regarding relative efficiency of returning veterans and existing forces by stating categorically that all former employees who had left to serve in the war with Germany and who applied for reinstatement under the provisions of the Executive Order were to be reinstated immediately. The circular made no mention of a method for reducing the resulting increase in force, but an unsigned memorandum[59] for the Secretary of the Navy, presumably originating with Assistant Secretary Franklin D. Roosevelt, accompanying a draft of the circular letter, stated that consideration of the relative efficiency of the personnel in order to effect a reduction in force should not be taken up until a period of sixty days had elapsed, and then only in the event that the increase in force caused by reinstatements had not been absorbed into the existing organization.

Although there are no statistics available to substantiate the supposition, it is logical to assume that this step was taken because of the high rate of turnover in personnel, on the subject of which considerable plaintive comment appears in the annual reports from bureau chiefs for the years immediately following the end of the war. By reinstating the veteran at once, without the imposition of its own requirements relating to vacancies and relative efficiency, the Department was acting in obedience to the law of the land; and by using any surplus thus created in one part of the organization to fill vacancies in the other parts, it was also maintaining its own working strength.

The circular letter of March 7, 1919, also directed that each bureau, navy yard, board, or office should provide reinstatement for its own former employees only. The letter further called for the assignment of the reinstated veteran to the particular position and rate of pay held by him prior to leaving to enter the military or naval service unless, because of any reorganization of the shop or office that might meanwhile have been effected, the particular position occupied by the veteran before leaving no longer existed.

The unsigned memorandum submitted to the Secretary of the Navy in connection with this circular letter called his attention to the fact that a certain proportion of employees requesting reinstatement were not old employees who had served the Department for a number of years, but were newcomers who had come into its employ as war workers during emergency conditions. For this reason it was not advisable to tie the heads of departments and offices too rigidly to the requirement for placing reinstated employees in the exact positions they had

occupied before entering the armed services, as the tremendous expansion resulting from the war had considerably changed the organization of the Department and of the naval establishment, and a great many positions which existed prior to the war, or at its beginning, no longer existed.

Apparently the provisions of the act of February 25, 1919, for the restoration of Government jobs to veterans were not sufficiently clear, as the Civil Service Commission requested clarification on certain points from the Attorney General, who gave an opinion on April 11, 1919. One of the questions asked was whether the act required the reinstatement of persons who had served in Government positions only temporarily, and who had had no permanent status in the civil service prior to their entrance into military service. On this question the Attorney General held that a person so employed was no doubt a former Government employee within the meaning of the act and that, therefore, he must be reinstated if he fulfilled the requirements stipulated in the act. The Attorney General further held that upon reinstatement the former temporary employee should occupy the same status that he had occupied at the time of his entrance into military service; that his appointment should continue as long as necessary to make a permanent appointment through certification of eligibles; and that he must be removed within thirty days after receipt by the appointing officer of the Civil Service Commission's certificate, unless the Commission either authorized his retention in the service beyond that time, or unless he could within that time qualify himself for permanent appointment.

In this ruling the Attorney General also reversed the opinion expressed by the Civil Service Commission the preceding January, by holding that Section IX of the civil service act, restricting the number of members of the same family eligible for appointment to the classified service, applied only to the original appointment and not to the reinstatement of a veteran. The Attorney General also held that the provision for reinstatement applied only to those who had been drafted or had enlisted in the military service as privates, or those who had enlisted for the purpose of entering officers' training camps and had afterward been commissioned; but he held that it did not apply to those who had been commissioned directly from civil life without any previous enlistment.

Certain fine points in terminology were also clarified by the Attorney General. Because the provision for the reinstatement of veterans had been included in that portion of the act which concerned solely the War Department, and because the words "military service" had been used, the question was raised whether persons returning from naval service were covered. The Attorney General ruled that the term "military service" was used in its broad sense and applied to the entire military establishment, including the Navy and the Marine Corps as well as the Army.

In the opinion of the Attorney General, the provision for reinstatement did not apply to every veteran who at any time might have been an employee of the Government, but only to those who had enlisted or been drafted while in the Federal civil service.

This opinion of the Attorney General was transmitted to the Secretary of the Navy by Martin A. Morrison, president of the Civil Service Commission, on May 19, 1919.[59] Because of the mandatory provision of the act the Commission withdrew its earlier requirement that the Department secure authority from the Commission before reinstating former employees, providing that the reinstatement were to the same grade formerly held by the veteran. The Commission pointed out that the act provided only for reinstatement to the position formerly held by the applicant, and that in any case where reinstatement in some other position was desired, prior authority of the Commission should be obtained.

Another aspect of the special status accorded the returning veteran who had formerly been in Government service, in addition to the right of restoration of former jobs, was the special preference for appointment to any part of the competitive classified service within five years from the date of discharge from military service. This right was enunciated in the Executive Order of July 18, 1918. The preference was broadened in a rider attached to the Census Act of March 3, 1919, which extended the preference to widows of veterans who were qualified to hold the positions. Furthermore, this act did not limit such preference to veterans of the first

World War whose civil service had been interrupted by their entry into military service. The provisions of the act of March 3, 1919, were repeated in a clause of the Deficiency Act of July 11, 1919, which also extended the preference to qualified wives of disabled veterans. An Executive Order of April 16, 1919, revoked Executive Order No. 2917 and amended civil service rule IX. Under its provisions a veteran formerly in the employ of the Government, although not in such employment immediately preceding his entrance into military service, and therefore not entitled to claim the right of restoration to his position under the act of February 25, 1919, was eligible for reinstatement to an appropriate position in the discretion of the head of the same department or office, if requisition for his services were made within five years of the date of his discharge from military service.

Such were the statutory, executive, and administrative mandates and directives followed by the Navy Department in the reinstatment and reemployment of its former employees returning home from military service. No statistics are available from either the Navy Department or the Civil Service Commission to show the number of veterans reinstated by the Department, but the existence of a body of correspondence and directives on the subject of the reemployment of veterans is a clear indication of considerable activity in this connection. In spite of the many and various directives in behalf of special privileges for veterans, it appears that there was a great deal of dissatisfaction and complaint among veterans and friends of veterans. Representative Ernest R. Ackerman, for example, wrote to the President of the United States that he had read an article in the issue of the New York Evening World for July 1, 1919, which recounted the difficulties returning soldiers were experiencing in their efforts to be reinstated in their former positions in Government departments in Washington.[60] According to this article, in many instances the men had found it necessary to accept positions other than those which they had left, and frequently at lower ratings. Ackerman suggested that the President correct the situation by executive order.

Copies of Representative Ackerman's letter were transmitted by the President to heads of the various agencies in Washington. In response, Secretary Daniels wrote directly to Ackerman, enclosing a copy of his circular letter of March 7, 1919, which, he stated, set forth the attitude of the Navy Department relative to the reinstatement of its former employees returning from the war.[60]

The statutory and executive requirements covering the reinstatement of veterans complicated and made more difficult the efforts of the Navy Department to cut its forces down to the limits imposed by curtailed legislative appropriations. To fulfill the requirements laid down in the statutes and executive orders, the Department could not escape the necessity of separating a considerable number of workers who had no claim to the special preference accorded veterans. One result of this situation was the endangering of the efficiency of the civil forces, but the Department found ways of protecting itself from this highly undesirable possibility.

VIII

THE REINSTATED VETERAN AND REDUCTION IN FORCE

For more than four years following the end of the first World War, the veteran's only special privilege for retention of his job during reduction in force was a somewhat frayed heritage from post Civil War times when Congress, in its usual frenzy of post war economy, was striving to deflate the swollen civil forces of the Government and at the same time demonstrate in a practical way the nation's gratitude toward its returned soldiers and sailors. The Appropriation Act of August 15, 1876, contained a provision which directed that heads of departments, in making any reduction in force, should "retain those persons who may be equally qualified who have been honorably discharged from the military or naval service of the United States, and the widows and orphans of deceased soldiers and sailors." The requisites concerning relative efficiency, so vaguely implied in this statute, were made a little more definite in the Appropriation Act of August 23, 1912, which directed the Civil Service Commission to establish a system of efficiency ratings for the classified service, and specified that "in the event of reductions being made in the force in any of the executive departments no honorably discharged soldier or sailor whose record in said department is rated good shall be discharged or dropped or reduced in rank or salary."

It was held by the Navy Department that the effect of the provision of this 1912 law for the retention of veterans whose rating was good was nullified by the fact that neither the Civil Service Commission nor the Bureau of Efficiency (the latter had been given responsibility in the matter in 1916) had issued a system of efficiency rating.[61] This interpretation left only the Act of August 15, 1876, as a binding directive governing the retention of veterans during reduction in force. Until 1923, in accordance with this act the Navy Department gave preference to veterans during reductions only on the basis of their having an efficiency rating equal or superior to that of non veterans. Despatch No. 100019, dated July 19, 1919, sent by the Secretary to the whole Department and naval establishment, called attention to the provisions of the 1876 statute relative to discharges, and ordered that employees who had served in the military or naval forces should be given preference in retention provided their efficiency equaled that of other employees.[62]

The extensive amount of statutory and executive directives concerning their reinstatement in the civil service of the Government naturally resulted, among veterans and their friends, in confusing preference in reinstatement with preference in retention. When lack of work and diminished appropriations forced the Department to discharge employees, including reinstated veterans of low efficiency, many protests arose and the charge was made that veterans were being denied their legal rights. In March 1920 Representative Patrick H. Kelley wrote to Assistant Secretary of the Navy Franklin Roosevelt concerning complaints he had received that ex-service men at the Norfolk yard were not being given the preference provided them by law.[63] Mr. Kelley cited the Deficiency Act of July 11, 1919, and wrote that, contrary to its provisions for veterans' preference, the navy yard officials at Norfolk held that ex-service men were entitled to preference in retention only when their efficiency equaled or excelled that of other members of the force. The Representative expressed the opinion that this amounted to no preference at all, and he asked Mr. Roosevelt to have the situation looked into and to advise him on the matter. A few days later the Assistant Secretary wrote Mr. Kelley a lengthy letter setting forth the legal authority for the Department's action in discharging veterans.[63] He pointed out that the act of July 11, 1919, pertained to preference only in the matter of appointment and did not mention any special privilege in retention. He then quoted the provisions of the Appropriation Act of August 15, 1876, and stated that, in the absence of further legislation, the Department could grant preference in retention to veterans only in case of equal efficiency. The letter ended with the firm statement, "Ex-service men are now receiving all preference to which they are entitled under existing law, as regards the Navy Department and naval establishment."

Because of the number of protests received concerning the discharge of veterans, Secretary Daniels on May 27, 1920, asked the Attorney General for an opinion on veterans'

preference in connection with reduction in force, and set forth the practice followed by the Department of the Navy. The Attorney General replied that the Department's interpretation of existing law was correct, and that preference in retention should under the law be given only those veterans whose efficiency equaled that of other members of the force.[64]

Puzzling details arose in connection with the discharge of veterans, and Assistant Secretary Roosevelt asked the Civil Service Commission for answers to certain specific questions.[65] If an employee, he asked, who had been reinstated under the act of February 25, 1919, or the Executive Order of April 16, 1919, resigned for reasons of his own, was he still eligible for reinstatement during the prescribed period? The Commission answered that the original reinstatement had fulfilled the law, and that if an employee voluntarily relinquished it, further reinstatement would fall under the regular provisions of civil service rules.

The Assistant Secretary also presented the following special problem: Employees in Groups I, II, and III, reinstated under the act of February 25, 1919, or the Executive Order of April 16, 1919, might be discharged at their own request or for cause, or on account of reduction in force or lack of funds. Under labor board regulations such employees rated "very good" could be entered on furlough lists for reinstatement; those with less than "very good" would be required to file another application for employment. The Assistant Secretary wanted to know whether, in the event of the discharge of employees for cause or because of reduction, they were eligible, under the statute or Executive Order cited, for reinstatement again within five years. To this question the Commission replied that, whether the separation were voluntary, for cause, or because of reduction in force, the law had been fulfilled upon the original reinstatement of the employee, and further reemployment would have to follow normal civil service procedure.

IX

EFFICIENCY RATINGS AND REDUCTION IN FORCE

Charges of unfairness and favoritism continued against the Department's program for reduction, and many of its discharged employees, both veterans and non-veterans, vociferously complained that they had been separated while persons of less efficiency had been retained. The Department, in investigating these charges, became acutely aware of the lack of uniformity in its efficiency-rating system, especially in the systems used in the field for rating members of Groups I, II, and III, and it therefore undertook a survey of its current practices as a step toward the establishment of a uniform system.

In the fall of 1919 boards were established at twenty of the largest navy yards and shore stations, charged with the responsibility of making a report on the existing system and recommendations for improvements.[66] A board was appointed in January 1920 to consider the recommendations from the several yards and stations and to devise a uniform system to be established for grading all employees of the navy yard service, exclusive of those in Group IV. The Board made its report the following March, expressing the opinion that it was impracticable to institute such a system in the navy yard service or elsewhere. The board bolstered this opinion by stating that it had not been able to find any such system in operation in private concerns.

Commenting on the report of the board, Charles Piozet, acting chief of the Appointment Division, wrote on March 11, 1920, in a memorandum to Louis McHenry Howe, Mr. Roosevelt's assistant: "In this connection it may be stated that the necessity for an efficiency marking system in private industrial plants is not as apparent as under the Government, where, because of the scheme of employment and appeal to Congressmen, Senators, and others for the revocation of discharge means a burden thrown upon the Department in adjudicating such complaints, the Department feels there is a real necessity for the establishment of such a system for its own convenience and protection, in order that charges of favoritism on the part of supervisors in selecting employees for discharge be eliminated."[66] Mr. Piozet suggested that the report be returned to the board with directions to formulate a simple efficiency marking system, adding, "If necessary, as a last recourse, I believe I could formulate a workable system."

Harassed by a rising sense of the lack of efficiency in its forces, the Department sought to derive some benefit from the reductions forced upon it by lack of funds by seeing to it that the least efficient workers were the first to be eliminated. On January 28, 1920, the Assistant Secretary issued a circular letter to the entire Department and naval establishment in which he frankly stated his recognition of the fact that the enormous expansion in civil forces brought on by the war had lowered the efficiency and general morale of the force.[67] He called for the preparation of a report which would indicate in general the relative efficiency of the force then employed with that if the force employed immediately prior to the declaration of war. Points of comparison should be tardiness, interest in and application to work, punctuality and attendance, and so forth. "The Department desires," wrote the Assistant Secretary, "to eliminate from the service employees who do not measure up to a standard, and by the application of such disciplinary measures as may be made in individual cases, attempt to restore efficiency and morale."

Executive Order No. 3567, dated October 24, 1921, directed the Bureau of Efficiency to prescribe a system of efficiency ratings for employees in the clerical service of the Government, and to fix rating standards for promotions and dismissals. The order ended: "In cases of reductions in the number of employees on account of insufficient funds or otherwise, necessary demotions and dismissals shall be made in order, beginning with the employees having the lowest ratings in each class, but honorably discharged soldiers and sailors whose ratings are good shall be given preference in selecting employees for retention." As with the provisions of the law of August 23, 1912, the provisions of this Executive Order governing

retention of veterans were considered by the Navy Department to be without force and effect because of the failure of the responsible agency to prescribe and promulgate a system of efficiency ratings, and the Navy Department continued to act under the provisions of the law of August 15, 1876, dismissing veterans when their efficiency was not equal to that of other members of the force. [68]

Strong protestations against the dismissal of veterans continued to come fo the Department from veterans' organizations, individual veterans, and members of Congress. On July 8, 1921, in response to a letter from Warren S. Fisher, National Commander of the United American War Veterans, Assistant Secretary Theodore Roosevelt wrote, "The attitude of the Navy concerning veterans' preference in employment is being taken up at a Cabinet meeting today. I will have you advised of the ruling when a definite determination is reached."[69] No notification to Fisher by the Assistant Secretary has been found among the records of the Department, but it is evident that the President was at least willing to go along with the veterans in giving them effective preference in retention. The direction for the retention of veterans in reduction in force was repeated in Executive Order No. 3801, of March 3, 1923: "In harmony with statutory provisions, when reductions are being made in the force, in any part of the classified service, no employee entitled to military preference in appointment shall be discharged or dropped or reduced in rank or salary if his record is good." Although no system for rating the efficiency of Government employees had as yet been formally promulgated by the Bureau of Efficiency, the Navy Department did not on that ground, as it had with the statute of August 23, 1912, and the Executive Order of October 24, 1921, consider the provisions of Executive Order No. 3801 as nullified; instead it interpreted that Order as placing in full force and effect the statute of August 23, 1912, and in the light of its history construed the term "good" to mean an equivalent rating in any system of efficiency marking maintained by any department of the Government. Hence the word "good" as used in the Executive Order was to be interpreted in the sense of "good" as ordinarily accepted in the Navy Department system.

The full story of the development of a system in the Navy Department for marking efficiency is not readily apparent in the records, but at the time the provisions of Executive Order No. 3801 were applied the grades were:[70]

Excellent	90-100
Very good	80-90
Good	70-79
Fair	60-69
Poor	Below 60

Despite the fact that in the Navy system "good" was considered an undesirable rating, orders were issued by the Department that veterans having a rating of 70 or better were to be retained in preference to non-veterans, regardless of the ratings held by non-veterans.[70]

A new chorus of protests arose when, under the application of this latest ruling governing the retention of veterans, continued reduction in force in the Department and especially in the naval establishment necessitated the discharge of non-veteran civil employees whose efficiency ratings were higher than those of the veterans who were kept on the force. This time the protests came from associations of civil employees, individual non-veteran civil employees, and commandants of navy yards.

A good case for the non-veteran employee was presented by N. P. Alifas, president, District No.44, of the International Association of Machinists, in a letter to the Assistant Secretary of the Navy dated July 23, 1923. [71] Mr. Alifas pointed out that ordinarily "good" as applied in the navy yard system was considered to indicate a poor workman, and that the result of the Order would therefore be the retention of veterans of low skill in preference to skilled non-veterans. With periodic reductions and increases occurring in the force, he wrote, in the course of a few years preference for veterans in appointment and retention would mean the complete elimination of all non-veterans from the force, with all jobs held by veterans. Mr. Alifas explained that his organization did not contend that no special consideration should be accorded veterans, but he believed that special preference for veterans should be

reasonable and consonant with the rights of other citizens and the efficiency and reliability of the yard forces. "It is contrary to the spirit of our American Institutions," wrote Mr. Alifas, "to create a super-citizen or preferred class of citizens. If our country is indebted to our veterans in a material way, and we believe such to be the case, the debt should be paid by all the people in the form of a bonus or grant for which the people as a whole could pay."

Mr. Alifas went on to plead the case of the non-veteran by citing earlier official pronouncements and actions showing the equal value of the civilian worker with that of the man in the armed service in times of national emergency: the exemption of the navy yard worker from militia service by the Army Reorganization Act of 1916; the message of the Secretary of the Navy in 1916 exhorting navy yard workers to remain in their civilian jobs, saying that they were as important to their country in that capacity as soldiers in the field; the Secretary's order in 1916 directing that resignations be not approved, and only accepted with notation of unpatriotic action; and the provisions of the Selective Service law under which draft boards released thousands of navy yard employees because their service as navy-yard workmen was of greater importance to the nation than their service as draftees. In the light of these earlier evaluations of the importance of the civilian worker during critical war conditions, was not some consideration due him after the end of the war?

On April 6, 1923, the commandant of the navy yard at Puget Sound wrote to the Assistant Secretary of the Navy, calling his attention to the gradual decrease in efficiency that would result from the retention of less efficient veterans in preference to skilled non-veterans.[72] Captain C. P. Plunkett, commandant of the New York navy yard, on July 11, 1923, recommended the extension of the provisions of Executive Order No. 3801 to cover the war-time civilian worker at the yard, adding an idea suggestive of a national-service law: "Experience in the last war, and the general concensus of opinion, points to the fact that, in the next war, all men of proper military age will be drafted for service under the Colors, and very probably most of the men now employed in this yard, and some of those who were here during the last war, will still find themselves doing the same work for the Government in the yard, but wearing the uniform of their country though not actually serving in the military forces at the front, and will, therefore, at the end of the war, be veterans and entitled to the privileges set forth in the Executive Order of 3 March 1923." [73]

Rear Admiral L. R. de Steiguer, commandant at the Boston navy yard, on September 19, 1923, communicated to the Secretary of the Navy his grave questioning of the wisdom of the Executive Order of March 3, 1923, saying that the backbone of the yard force consisted of men of long service who had no veteran's preference.[73] The application of the provisions of the Executive Order, he said, would result in a reduction of efficiency in the yard through the discharge of men of higher efficiency and the retention of men of lower efficiency who had military preference. Admiral de Steiguer recommended the extension of the Order to cover civilian employees who had been employed in naval or military establishments during the war with Germany and any previous wars, and who were still employed.

The executive committee of the National Association of United States Civil Service Employees at Navy Yards and Stations presented a plea for equal rights between veterans and non-veterans.[74] To this letter, as in substance to all letters of similar content, the Assistant Secretary replied that the matter was not within the discretion of the Navy Department. The Executive Order had been issued by the President of the United States; the Order was in accordance with existing laws, and it applied not to the Navy Department alone but to all Governmental departments.

Early in 1925 the long-promised system of efficiency ratings was finally produced by the Bureau of Efficiency. Before issuing final rulings on the system, the Bureau, which favored consideration of longevity and dependency by the system, asked the Navy Department for an opinion on the proposal that a credit of one point be given for each full year of civilian service, and that credit for dependents be given according to the following scale: [75]

Wife	1.5 points
Adults other than wife	.75 points
One child	.50 points
Other children	.25 points each

Points so credited were to be added to efficiency ratings of 65 or higher. The Navy Department rejected this proposal. The Secretary wrote the Chief of the Bureau of Efficiency that the Navy Department had as a matter of course taken longevity and dependency into consideration in selecting employees for discharge. The Secretary believed that these considerations, involving sentiment as they did, and perhaps even charity too, could not properly be measured by a mathematical scale. He therefore recommended that no provision be made for these matters in the efficiency-rating system, but that they be left to the administrative discretion of the Department.

On May 12, 1925, the Secretary of the Navy issued to the entire Department and naval establishment a circular letter of instructions regarding the application of the efficiency-rating system developed by the Bureau of Efficiency. This system gave considerable support to the Department's efforts to retain skilled and competent workers, as it raised the standards higher than those of the previous Navy system. "Good," the standard for determining veterans' rights to retention during reduction in force, was in the new system represented by a numerical rating of 80 to 84 instead of the former 70 to 79. The complete schedule of ratings was as follows:

Perfect	100
Excellent	95-99
Very good	85-94
Good	80-84
Fair	70-79
Poor	65-69
Unsatisfactory	Below 65

The word "good" as used in the act of August 23, 1912, and Executive Order No. 3801, of March 3, 1923, was construed to mean the rating of an employee having average efficiency in his class. According to instructions issued by the Bureau of Efficiency, honorably discharged soldiers and sailors attaining a rating of not less than 80 in this system were to be placed at the top of the lists of competing employees and were to be retained in their existing status of employment in preference to all others with whom they were in competition. The directions of the Bureau of Efficiency were reaffirmed in Executive Order No. 4240, of June 4, 1925, which also provided for credits for longevity of service - one-tenth of a credit for each full year of Government service.

The new efficiency-rating system met with strong opposition from the American Legion, as the members of the Legion felt that the operation of the system would endanger preferential rights of World War veterans.[76] Opposition by the Legion centered in Washington, D. C., and a special committee of the District Department of the Legion met in the summer of 1925 with the Personnel Classification Board - the clearinghouse for the rating system - to discuss the rights of ex-service men during reduction of Federal personnel. In spite of this opposition, the new system was put into effect.

The Navy Department amplified its earlier tentative instructions on the new system in a circular letter of September 17, 1925, which directed that the new system was to be put into effect on the following October 1.[77] This letter directed that the final rating was to be determined by applying to the efficiency mark two-tenths of one point for each full year of Government civil service - a rate of credit strangely divergent from that prescribed in Executive Order No. 4240.

It appears that occasionally the Department was driven to desperate measures to hold workers of sufficient competence for the efficient and prompt performance of the work of the yards. Evidence of such straits is contained in the following communication, dated July 9, 1924,

from Captain H. V. Butler, manager of the Department of Material of the New York navy yard, confirming a telephonic conversation between Captain Butler and Captain Willard - the latter of the Assistant Secretary's Office - on the subject of military preference, and setting forth the course of action planned by the commandant of that yard, C. P. Plunkett:[78]

1. In confirmation /of the telephonic conversation of July 9, 1924/ the following is submitted:

New York: The Commandant desires to call the Department's attention to a serious situation which has developed in regard to the necessary curtailment in the electrical force of this Yard, and the embarrassment which will result if the strict letter of the law, relative to non-discharge of men entitled to military preference, is carried out. Due to reductions in funds, a large number of electricians have already been discharged. The force has now been reduced to such an extent that a further reduction, which is in sight, will, if the non-veterans are discharged, seriously interfere with the completion of the CONCORD on time. This is due to the fact that, of the force remaining, very few of the veterans are capable of carrying on the special fire control work, but the military preference order requires the discharge of non-veterans although capable of doing this work. The Commandant takes this opportunity of informing the Department, as soon as the situation became apparent, as to the serious consequences which will result from the fact that the several specialties, which are included in the general rating of electrician, cannot always be performed by the ordinary electrician although he may be qualified to hold that rating as such.

Washington: The Department has always held that the interests of the Government are paramount, that the work on the ships must be performed, the vessels gotten out on time, and, if necessary, the non-veteran competent to do the work must be held in preference to the veteran, providing the veteran is not capable of performing the work on hand. The burden of proof, however, rests upon the Yard. One of the best ways to determine whether a veteran is capable of performing the work is to actually give him the work to do and, if he is not competent, to discharge him and retain the non-veteran who is competent.

New York: Your remarks are understood, but the procedure would be dangerous and considerable Government property might be damaged and the vessel considerably delayed.

2. The Commandant will, in accordance with the foregoing policy as announced by the Department, reduce the force in the Yard to conform with the funds available and character of work being performed, retaining such non-veterans as may be necessary to properly carry on the work and safeguard the interests of the Government.

X

FURLOUGHING OF EMPLOYEES

Under the new efficiency-rating system the Navy Department continued its effort to retain the most efficient workers. The majority of those who were separated, because of the force of the various statutes and Executive Orders, were non-veterans, but employees with veterans' preference were also included among those who were discharged or furloughed. By means of the furlough the Department was able to rid its rolls of members of low relative efficiency, yet to keep within the letter of the law. Section 69(a) of Civil Service Commission Form 2009 provided for furloughs up to thirty days and for selection for furloughs to be made on the basis of relative efficiency. As this Form made no mention of military preference, and as the Executive Order prescribing retention of veterans made no mention of furloughs, the Department concluded that it was free during periods of reduction to furlough the less efficient members of the force, including veterans.

The furloughing of employees, however, was not introduced as a device for removing specially privileged employees whose efficiency ratings were low. During the first extensive reductions in force following the end of the war, the Department had been besieged with requests from labor organizations that employees be furloughed instead of discharged. In response to these appeals, on September 4, 1919, the Secretary issued a circular letter stating that furloughing was contrary to the desire of the Department.[79] "However," he conceded, "in consideration of the present state of unrest and industrial conditions generally obtaining during the reconstruction period following the conclusion of hostilities, upon recommendation of the Commandant, Industrial Manager or other officer in charge, the Department will consider authorizing the furlough employees for a period in excess /of the fifteen days provided for in Article 321(61)(a), U. S. Naval Instructions, 1913/ whose conduct and workmanship have proved 'very good' or better, provided there is reasonable prospect of securing additional funds or work as the case may be, in order that those employees whose services it may be necessary to dispense with temporarily would be within immediate reach upon resumption of activities without going through the process of requisition and certification by the Labor Board."

The furloughing of veterans brought the usual protests, this time from ex-service men and their organizations, and also from their representatives in the House and Senate. The Department's reply to these protests was a patient explanation of the occasional need to stop work temporarily because of such reasons as non-delivery or lack of materials, lack of funds, weather conditions, and various administrative considerations.[80] Furloughs were made, the Department explained, according to Navy Regulations and in order of relative efficiency; the Executive Order of March 3, 1923, was not violated by this practice, since the Order related to discharges, and furloughed men were not discharged but were carried on the pay rolls in a non-pay status. This specious reasoning brought cold comfort to the veterans, whom the Department continued to feel free to furlough until an opinion of the Attorney General stopped the practice in 1929.

In that year the President of the United States asked the Attorney General for an opinion on whether Executive Order No. 5068, of March 2, 1929, forbade the furloughing of employees entitled to veterans' preference whose ratings were good or better. The Attorney General was of the opinion that the Order did forbid the furloughing of such employees.[81]

* * *

Sufficient time has now elapsed to give a clear perspective to a study of the experience of the Navy Department in demobilizing its civilian forces after the first World War. The complete record of that experience, however, is imbedded in the extensive and imperfect archives of the Department. For this study, the user of those sources has had to follow somewhat the same practice as that of the anthropologist who makes his reconstruction from a bone here and a bone there. Nevertheless the digging has revealed a clear outline of the Department's struggle against the many forces naturally aroused in a complex society by actions which so

strongly affect both public funds and private earnings. And the findings show that the Department did succeed in reducing the number of its civilian employees, and continued the reduction until the 1930's,when the groundswells of the coming hurricane were felt, and the Navy again began to prepare itself for war.

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Administrative Reference Service Report Number 9

FIXING WAGES AND SALARIES OF NAVY CIVILIAN EMPLOYEES IN SHORE ESTABLISHMENTS 1862 - 1945

U.S. Navy dept. Administrative office.
45-37619

Prepared May 1945 by GUY McPHERSON and MARY WATTS
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Division of Shore Establishments and Civilian Personnel.

Records Administration Division, Administrative Office, Navy Department

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FIXING WAGES AND SALARIES OF NAVY CIVILIAN EMPLOYEES IN SHORE ESTABLISHMENTS 1862-1945

* * * *

I. FIXING OF WAGES OF POSITIONS IN GROUPS I, II, III, AND IVa BY WAGE BOARD PROCEDURE

The rate of wages of civil employees at navy yards, naval stations and other shore establishments in classification Group I (laborers and others engaged upon manual work which requires no mechanical skill or other trade knowledge;) Group II (helpers and others engaged upon work which requires some mechanical skill or trade knowledge;) Group III (artisans;) and Group IVa supervisors of Group I, II, and III employees, and native and alien employees performing similar service at shore establishments outside the continental limits of the United States, is fixed by the Secretary of the Navy, under authority of the act of Congress, approved July 16, 1862 (12 Stat. 587-34 USC 505), which provides as follows:

> "That section eight of an act to further promote the efficiency of the Navy, approved December twenty-first, eighteen hundred and sixty-one, be amended so as to read as follows: That the hours of labor and the rate of wages of the employees in the navy yards shall conform, as nearly as is consistent with the public interest, with those of private establishments in the immediate vicinity of the respective yards, to be determined by the commandants of the navy yards, subject to the approval and revision of the Secretary of the Navy."

The Secretary of the Navy is, by the above quoted statute, charged with the responsibility for fixing the rate of wages of civilian employees at navy yards, naval stations and other shore establishments. Prior to the enactment of this amendatory statute, the "commandant of the navy-yard" was charged with the responsibility for fixing the rate of wage of civilian employees, by the act of Congress of December 21, 1861.

The act of July 16, 1862, does not prescribe that the rate of wages of civil employees at navy yards shall be "set by wage boards", the manner in which wage boards shall function when convened, the times at which rates of wages shall be adjusted or the time during which wages once fixed shall be applicable. Wage boards of the Navy Department are not creations of statute or "Navy Regulations" but are appointed and convened, when directed by the Secretary of the Navy and at such times as he deems necessary, by the commandant or commanding officer of designated navy yards and naval stations to investigate existing wage conditions in private establishments in the vicinity of the yards and stations and recommend rates of wages for civilian employees of naval shore establishments within the purview of the board. The wage board of review which considers the reports and recommendations of the local wage boards and other evidence and recommends to the Secretary of the Navy rates of wages for all shore establishments is appointed and convened by the Secretary of the Navy.

Wage board procedure has been used by the Navy Department since May 20, 1864. The existing wage board precedure, which was established January 8, 1940, has generally been the same for many years. Usually, once a year, wage boards are appointed and convened at the principal navy yards and naval stations to investigate existing wage conditions and recommend the rate of wages for the ensuing calendar year. The members are commissioned officers of the Navy and the recorder is a civilian employee. The employees in each trade name a trade committee

to collect wage data and present the case of their trade to the wage board. The wage board prepares a list of all private establishments from which wage data will be obtained. The list is published and the trade committees permitted to recommend changes in the list. Finally, a mutually satisfactory list of private establishments is agreed upon. The wage board then proceeds to personally visit each private establishment to ascertain the rate of wage they are actually paying. The trade committees, if they so desire, accompany the board on these visits. After both sides have studied and tabulated the information thus obtained, the trade committees appear before the board and ask for the rate of wage they feel should be established. Local representatives of labor organizations are permitted to present their cases to the board. The local wage boards' reports and recommendations are sent to Washington, where they are reviewed by the Wage Board of Review, consisting of one commissioned Naval officer, two civil employees of the Navy Department, and one or two national representatives of labor. This Board examines the local reports and recommendations of the local boards and reconciles any inconsistences. Hearings are granted by the board to employee trade committees and representatives of labor and other persons who desire a hearing. Finally, the Wage Board of Review makes its report and recommendation to the Secretary of the Navy. The Secretary of the Navy, after such modification of the recommendation of the Wage Board of Review, as he deems necessary, fixes the rate of wages of employees in Groups I, II, III, IV(a) for the ensuing calendar year.

A chronological history of the use of wage board procedure by the Navy Department in fixing the rate of wages of civil employees at navy yards, naval stations and other naval shore establishments since July 16, 1862, follows:

The Secretary of the Navy, by circular letter dated June 10, 1863, to the commandants of the navy yards, promulgated the Act of July 16, 1862 and directed them to ascertain from outside establishments in the vicinity of the yards "by the best means in their power, the rates of pay and hours of labor of classes similarly employed as those in the yards, with the number of men in each class". He also directed that "the number in each class in the yard should be in the same proportion to the whole number of workmen employed, that they do in private yards, and the compensation should be the same in each case", and "particular care should be taken to see that the number of workmen in classes receiving the highest pay is not relatively greater than in private yards".

Because of "continuous applications to the Department for changes in the pay of workmen in the navy yards," the Secretary of the Navy, by circular letter dated May 20, 1864, ordered the commandants of each navy yard to appoint "a Board to be composed of one line officer, one head of Division and one master workman to make diligent inquiry at the principal private mechanical establishments in the vicinity of the yard and ascertain the established rule for working hours at each establishment, the number of men employed, the number of classes of workmen, the number in each class, and the rate of wages paid each class of workmen." He further directed that the Board report the result of its inquiry to the Commandant who would cause to be posted the reported scale of wages "that the workmen may examine it and state their views on its merits to the commandant;" that "the scale then fixed upon will be submitted to the Department and if approved, the rate established will remain in force for two months without change;" and "this order to take effect on the 1st of June next and on the 15th day of every second month thereafter a similar investigation will be made and the result reported as before."

On March 29, 1869, Vice Admiral David D. Porter, acting for the Secretary of the Navy, by circular letter, directed commandants of navy yards to prepare a separate schedule of wages for each department of the navy yard and submit it to the appropriate bureaus of the Navy Department, which would refer the schedule to the Secretary of the Navy for his revision and approval. Under the same date, the Secretary of the Navy, in circular letter to commandants of navy yards, cited the act of Congress, approved June 25, 1868, which fixed eight hours as a day's work for all laborers, workmen, and mechanics who may be employed by or in behalf of the Government at eight hours, and the act of Congress of July 16, 1862, and directed that in their contracts for labor they be governed by the rule that "navy yard wages per day should bear the same proportion to the wages per day of outside establishments that the navy yard working-day bears to a working day of outside establishments."

The Secretary of the Navy on April 19, 1869, in circular letter to commandants of navy yards, advised that under the eight-hour law of June 25, 1868, "the Department has no authority to extend the hours of labor by making more than eight hours a day's work, but it has the right to employ mechanics, workmen, and laborers extra hours and to pay them pro rata for such extra labor" and advised the commandants that "while, therefore, necessity exists for extra labor you are at liberty to exercise your discretion in the matter, so as to assist the working classes and at the same time do justice to the Government."

On May 24, 1869, the Secretary of the Navy, in circular letter to commandants of navy yards, directed that they be governed by the proclamation of the President of May 19, 1869, that "from and after that date no reduction should be made in the wages paid by the Government, by the day, to laborers, workmen, and mechanics on account of the reduction of the hours of labor by the act of June 25, 1868, constituting eight hours a day's work".

On October 25, 1877, the Department, by circular letter to navy yards, established the working hours of the navy yards as follows: From March 21 to September 21, 7:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m.; from September 22 to March 20, 7:40 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.; with the usual intermission of one hour for dinner, and that "this regulation is not designed to carry with it any present reduction of pay".

On March 21, 1878, the Secretary of the Navy, by circular letter, substituted the following for the circular of October 25, 1877: From March 21 to September 21, from 7:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m.; from September 22 to March 20, from 7:40 a.m. to 4:30 p.m., with the usual intermission of one hour for dinner, and stated that "the Department will contract for the labor of mechanics, foremen, leading-men, and laborers on the basis of eight hours a day", and that, "all workmen electing to labor ten hours a day will receive a proportionate increase of their wages".

On September 21, 1878, the Acting Secretary of the Navy, by circular letter, advised that "the change in the working hours which goes into effect on the 22nd instant will not involve any reduction in pay", and that "the employees will be paid the same as if they could work the full length of time that the working hours in the spring and summer permit them to do."

New regulations for wage boards were issued by the Secretary of the Navy in Article 1675, "Navy Regulations 1893". These regulations directed that "the commandant of each navy yard shall appoint a board of officers who shall make diligent inquiry at the principal private mechanical establishments in the vicinity of the yard as to the rate of daily wages paid to workmen of different classes in each trade included in the trade schedule of the yard and shall report quarterly to the commandant the result of such inquiries, and recommend rates for the payment of workmen of corresponding classes of trades at the yard. The commandant shall then forward to each bureau a quarterly schedule of wages under that bureau, in duplicate, as approved by himself, and when approved by the bureau and the Navy Department the schedule shall remain in force during the ensuing quarter."

Article 1670 "Navy Regulations 1896" continued the 1893 regulations, except a provision that the schedule of wages approved by the commandant be forwarded direct to the Navy Department for its revision and approval, instead of via the bureau concerned. Article 1720, "Navy Regulations 1900" continued the 1896 regulations, except a provision that the rate of wage be determined semi-annually and be a multiple of eight, and a provision that inquiry at private establishments as to the rate of wages paid workingmen in trades and occupations carried in the yard schedule of wages be confined to those who do work of the same character in that trade as that done in the yard, or resembling it as nearly as possible. Article 1720, "Navy Regulations 1905," continued the 1900 regulations except a provision that the rate of wage be determined annually. Article 1585, "Navy Regulations 1909" continued the 1900 regulations. Article 371, Naval Instructions, 1913 continued the 1909 regulations, except a provision that, when practicable, the membership of the board shall include the heads of divisions of the manufacturing department and the public works department, and that the maximum number of rates of pay for any yard rating shall be five.

New regulations for wage boards were issued by the Secretary of the Navy, in circular letter of April 14, 1923. These regulations incorporated the 1913 regulations, and instructions to wage boards contained in directives of the Secretary of the Navy in circular letters of May 10, 1921 and September 21, 1922, to commandants of naval districts, to appoint and convene wage boards for the purposes of the act of July 16, 1862, and the 1913 wage regulations. The primary changes were in the membership of the board to three commissioned officers attached to the yard divisions employing the largest number of employees, and a civilian recorder; the senior member to be of the rank of Commander or above, if possible; designation of wage boards and sphere of application of rates of wages established for specified navy yards and naval stations; interpretation of clause "as nearly as is consistent with the public interest" in the act of July 16, 1862, as "the interests of all the public of which the employees of the Naval Establishment constitute a part, and does not exclude the taxpayers of the country who must furnish the funds from which wages are to be paid;" specific instructions regarding selection and listing of representative private establishments and participation of employees therein; sphere of wage inquiry; formula for determination of wage data obtained from private establishments having hours of work different from those of navy yards by local wage boards to conform with proclamation of the President of the United States of May 24, 1869, that from and after that date no reduction should be made in the wages paid by the Government, by the day, to laborers, workmen, and

mechanics on account of the reduction of the hours of labor by the act of June 25, 1868, constituting eight hours a day's work; exclusion of overtime paid by private establishments from "normal work periods" of such establishments in determination of wage data; method of computing weighted average pay per hour in the maximum, intermediate and minimum rates and of all data obtained for each trade and occupation from private establishments; participation of employees in wage determination; justification for recommending change in navy yard wage rate -- that standard of wages in private establishments is different from the wages paid for the same character of work in the navy yard; exclusion from direct consideration wage paid specially skilled, special compensation or single purpose men, and wages of men working under piecework, task or bonus systems.

These regulations were modified September 18, 1923 by including rate of wages paid employees in the "Hospital Service (excepted group)" in wage survey and recommendation. New regulations for wage boards were issued by the Secretary of the Navy, in circular letter of July 27, 1926. These regulations made no material change in the 1923 regulations.

New regulations for wage boards were issued by the Secretary of the Navy, in circular letter of June 15, 1929. These regulations were not used in the fixing of rates of wages. On November 27, 1929, the Secretary of the Navy dissolved the Wage Board of Review, in Washington, then in session considering wage data and recommendations submitted by local wage boards and commandants of navy yards under such regulations for the calendar year 1930, and directed that the schedule of wages for 1929 be continued through the calendar year 1930 for reasons hereafter stated. For other reasons, hereafter stated, wage boards were not appointed or convened until February 14, 1940.

New regulations for wage boards were issued by the Secretary of the Navy in circular letter of January 8, 1940. The primary change made in the 1926 regulations was the following statement regarding the responsibilities for the fixing of wages:

> "The Secretary of the Navy, in accordance with the Act of July 16, 1862 (34 USC 505), is charged with the responsibility for fixing wages of civilian employees of Groups I, II, III, and IV(a) in the field services of the Navy Department and the Marine Corps within the continental limits of the United States and the Fourteenth Naval District. In fixing such wages, the action of the Secretary of the Navy is based on information respecting wages paid in the vicinity of the various field establishments determined for him by the commanding officers, and on their recommendations which are subject to his approval and revision."

Also a formula for determination of wage data obtained from private establishments on a forty-hour work week basis instead of a forty-eight hour work week basis, in view of section 23 of the act of March 28, 1934 (5 USC 673c), and a provision for the appointment of a wage board of review to consider the reports and recommendations of the local wage boards, together with such other evidence as it may obtain, and recommend rate of pay for each trade and occupation in Groups I, II, III, and IV(a) in the field services of the Navy Department and the Marine Corps. (Wage boards of review had been appointed and convened by the Secretary of the Navy for this purpose since 1917.)

II. FIXING OF WAGES OF POSITIONS IN GROUPS I, II, III, AND IVa BY ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURE

Wage board procedure was not used during the period of the first world war and up to May 10, 1921. The rate of wages of employees at naval shore establishments during this period were based upon the award of the Shipbuilding Labor Adjustment Board, of the Emergency Fleet Corporation.

During the period of January 1, 1930, to February 14, 1940, wage board procedure was not used because of the downward trend of industrial wages; and statutory prohibitions against reduction in compensation and administrative promotions in the acts of Congress of June 30, 1932 (Public No. 212 - 72d Congress - First Economy Act); March 3, 1933 (Public No. 428 - 72d Congress - Second Economy Act), and March 20, 1933 (Public No. 2 - 73d Congress) also necessitated the continuance of the 1929 schedule. Section 23 of the Act of Congress of March 28, 1934 (5 U.S.C. 673c) relating to rate of wages and hours of labor had the effect of giving for 40 hours' work, the 48 hours' pay formerly given for 44 hours' work and the fixing of the rate of wages on the level of the wage schedule in effect on June 1, 1932, viz., the 1929 schedule. Wage boards have not been appointed or convened since November 18, 1940, because of the following conditions:

In August and October 1941, and January 1942, the rates of wages of civil employees in Groups

I, II, III and IV(a) at naval shore establishments were fixed in consideration of the shipbuilding wage agreements, resulting from the East Coast, West Coast, Gulf Zone and Great Lakes Area Stabilization Conferences.

On December 2, 1942, the National War Labor Board by General Order No. 18 delegated to the Secretary of the Navy power to rule upon all applications for wage and salary adjustments (insofar as approval thereof has been made a function of the National War Labor Board), covering civilian employees within the continental limits of the United States, and Alaska, employed directly by the Navy Department, in accordance with the terms of the Executive Order 9250, dated October 3, 1942, and all general orders and policies of the National War Labor Board announced thereunder. This order was amended on August 27, 1943, and August 26, 1944 by requiring compliance also with Executive Order 9328, dated April 8, 1943, and the supplementary directive of May 12, 1943 of the Economic Stabliization Director, and extending the authority of the Secretary of the Navy to include the Territory of Hawaii.

The fixing of the rate of wages in accordance with the Inflation Control Act, approved October 2, 1942 (56 Stat. 765) and General Order No. 18 of the National War Labor Board does not conflict with the authority of the Secretary of the Navy to fix the rate of wages of employees under the act of July 16, 1862. The "public interest" clause in the 1862 statute requires conformity with the 1942 statute and the policies of the National War Labor Board. General Order No. 18, the Executive Orders, Supplementary Directive of the Economic Stabilization Director, the operating agreement of the Navy Department and the National War Labor Board, and procedural instructions governing the fixing of wages of employees in Groups I, II, III, IV(a), are contained in the revised schedules of wages of November 30, 1943 and October 16, 1944.

III. SCHEDULE OF WAGES

Separate schedules of wages have been established by administrative action for each navy yard under order of the Secretary of the Navy of June 10, 1863, and through wage board procedure, on the 1st day of June 1864, and the 15th day of every second month thereafter, and quarterly from 1893 to and including 1897. Separate schedules of wages were established through wage board procedure for each navy yard semi-annually from January 1, 1898, to December 31, 1908, and annually, from January 1, 1909, to December 31, 1916. Also from January 1 to September 23, 1917, September 24 to October 31, 1917, November 1, 1917 to April 30, 1918 and May 1, 1918 to October 31, 1918. Separate schedules of wages were established by administrative procedure for the East Coast and for the West Coast for the period November 1, 1918, to September 15, 1920, and September 16, 1920, to September 15, 1921. Separate schedules of wages were established through wage board procedure for each navy yard for periods September 16, 1921 to April 30, 1923; May 1, 1923 to June 30, 1923; July 1, 1923 to July 15, 1923, and July 16, 1923 to December 31, 1923, annually from January 1, 1924 to December 31, 1929, and for the period November 18, 1940 to August 26, 1943. From August 27, 1943 to date the rate of wages was established under National Wage Board procedure.

Wage boards appointed and convened by or at the direction of the Secretary of the Navy are dissolved after making their report to the convening authority. Therefore, all new rates of wages and changes in the rate of wages in the interim between wage board actions are made by the Secretary of the Navy through administrative procedure. Revised schedules of wages are issued when the administrative action is of such volume or nature as to require the issue of revision of the basic schedule. Revised schedules were issued on May 12, 1927, July 23, 1931, March 1, 1936, November 30, 1943, and October 16, 1944. The 1931 revision of the 1929 schedule includes the rates of pay established by the Classification Act of 1923, as amended, which were applied to all Group IV(b) employees, except native and alien employees at shore establishments outside the continental limits of the United States, as directed by section 2, of the act of Congress of July 3, 1930 (Public - No. 523-71st Congress - Brookhart Salary Act) and interpreted by the Comptroller General of the United States (November 13, 1930, A-33146 and January 23, 1931, A-34464 and A-34882). The 1936 revision of the 1929 schedule includes changes in rates of wages incident to the establishment of the 40-hour work week, with consequent increase of 20 per cent in per diem and per hour rates of compensation under section 23 of the Independent Office Appropriation Act, of March 28, 1934, (5 U.S.C. 673c). The 1943 and 1944 revision of the 1940 schedule was issued because of the many administrative changes in the rates of wages, and the delegation to the Secretary of the Navy by the National War Labor Board, of authority to fix wages in accordance with the terms of pertinent Executive Orders, the directive of the Economic Stabilization Director of May 12, 1943, and general orders and policies of the board.

The original and revised schedules of wages from May 1, 1923 to and including October 16, 1944 were issued in printed form as "Schedule of Wages for Civil Employees in the Field Service of the Navy Department and Marine Corps." "Coast Guard" schedules were included in the November 30, 1943 and October 16, 1944 schedule of wages. (Rates of wages for all employees other

than Group IV(b) are not published in the November 30, 1943 and October 16, 1944 schedules of wages but are kept on file in the Wage Administration Branch of the Shore Establishments and Civilian Personnel Division because separate and distinct rates of wages are fixed for each and every individual field activity of the Navy, Marine Corps and Coast Guard.)

IV. FIXING OF SALARIES OF POSITIONS IN GROUP IVb

Wage board procedure has been used by the Navy Department in fixing the rate of wages of civil employees at navy yards, naval stations and other naval shore establishments in classification Groups I, II, III and IV(a) since May 20, 1864, except during periods of national emergency when the "public interest" necessitated the fixing of a uniform rate of wages for larger geographic areas for the purpose of stabilizing industry. Wage board procedure has not been used in fixing the salary rates of civil employees in Group IV(b) at navy yards, naval stations and other naval shore establishments, except during the period of the first world war and shortly thereafter, and in 1920 when a decided upward trend of the salary rates for employees in private establishments performing work similar to that performed by employees in Group IV(b) due to the first world war, required a general investigation by the Labor Wage Adjustment Board of commercial rates. A uniform classification of the work of Group IV(b) employees and a uniform salary rate for each classification in all navy yards, naval stations and other naval shore establishments, without regard to geographical location was established by the Secretary of the Navy as a result of this investigation. Thereafter, salary rates of Group IV(b) employees continued to be on a national basis. Another investigation of commercial salary rates was made by boards on wages under wage board regulations of 1921.

The salary rate of Group IV(b) employees prior to 1884 was fixed by Congress in annual appropriations for "Civil Establishment". From 1884 to 1909, the "Civil Establishment" salary rates were in effect, and also, per diem salary rates for special employments of a Group IV(b) character, established by the Secretary of the Navy, through administrative procedure, under the Act of July 16, 1862.

In the Naval appropriation act for the fiscal year 1910, approved March 3, 1909 (35 Stat. 755), Congress provided a new system of payment for Group IV(b) employees, as follows:

> "That hereafter the rates of pay of the clerical, drafting, inspection, and messenger force at navy yards and naval stations and other stations and offices under the Navy Department shall be paid from lump appropriations and shall be fixed by the Secretary of the Navy on a per annum or per diem basis as he may elect; that the number may be increased or decreased at his option and shall be distributed at the various navy yards and naval stations by the Secretary of the Navy to meet the needs of the naval service."

(The appropriation for "Civil Establishment" at specific salary rates was discontinued. The fixing of per diem salary rates of "special employments" by the Secretary of the Navy was also discontinued.)

Under authority of the above quoted statute and the act of August 29, 1916 (39 Stat. 558) hereafter quoted, the Secretary of the Navy, through administrative procedure (except as above stated) fixed the salary rate of Group IV(b) employees on a national per annum and per diem basis, including employees formerly in "Civil Establishment" and "special employments", from July 1, 1909 to December 31, 1930.

> "Hereafter, such amount may be expended annually for pay of drafting, technical, and inspection force from the several lump appropriations in which specific authority for such expenditure is given, as the Secretary of the Navy may deem necessary within the limitation of appropriation provided for such service in said lump sum appropriations at such rates of compensation as the Secretary of the Navy may prescribe; and the Secretary of the Navy shall each year, in the annual estimates, report to Congress the number of persons so employed, their duties, and the amount paid to each." (Act of August 29, 1916 - 39 Stat. 558).

Prior to the enactment of the act of March 3, 1909, all rates of wages and salaries of employees in Groups I, II, III, IV(a) and IV(b) were fixed by the Secretary of the Navy on a per diem basis, in view of the act of Congress of July 14, 1862, (Sec. 1545 Rev. Stat.) that "salaries shall not be paid to any employee in any of the navy-yards, except those who are not designated in the estimates", and "all other persons shall receive a per diem compensation for the time during which they may be actually employed." This section was expressly repealed by the act of March 3, 1909.

Since January 1, 1931, the salary rates of employees in Group IV(b) within the continental limits of the United States and American citizen employees (including native American citizen employees) outside the continental limits of the United States have been fixed in accordance with the "Classification Act of 1923", approved March 4, 1923 (5 USC 673) as amended under authority of section 2 of the Brookhart Salary Act, approved July 3, 1930 (46 Stat. 1005, 5 USC 678a), which authorizes and directs the Secretary of the Navy "to adjust the compensation" of "employees carried under Group 4-B, including the drafting groups, in the Schedule of Wages for Civil Employees under the Naval Establishments", "to correspond, so far as may be practicable, to the rates established by the Welch Salary Act of May 28, 1928 (5 USC, Supp. 3, 673)."

The Comptroller General of the United States, in decision to the Secretary of the Navy, dated November 13, 1930 (10 Comp. Gen. 216, A-33146) held that "the Brookhart Salary Act is now the only statutory authority for fixing the salary rates of employees under the Naval Establishment therein mentioned, and, with respect to these employees, supersede the act of July 16, 1862, (12 Stat. 587), and so much of the act of March 3, 1909, (35 Stat. 754), as grants an election to the Secretary of the Navy to fix rates of pay on a per diem basis for those employees in the clerical, drafting, inspection, and messenger force as are included in Group IV(b)." The salary rates of native employees (not citizens of the United States) and alien employees at shore establishments outside the continental limits of the United States, performing service similar to that performed by employees in Group IV(b), are still fixed by the Secretary of the Navy on a per diem or per annum basis, under the act of March 3, 1909, in accordance with the decision of the Comptroller General of the United States to the Secretary of the Navy of January 23, 1931, (10 Comp. Gen. 322, A-34464, A-34882) in which it is held, quoting from the syllabus,

> "The provision of section 2 of the Brookhart Salary Act of July 3, 1930, 46 Stat. 1005, extending the principles of classification through administrative action to employees coming under Group 4-B, including drafting groups in the Schedule of Wages for Civil Employees under the Naval Establishment, is not applicable to employees under the Naval Establishment in the Philippine Islands, Guam, Samoa, Virgin Islands, Panama Canal Zone, and other naval activities beyond the continental limits of the United States who are paid on native or alien schedules."

The general types of positions in classification Groups I, II, III, IV(a) and IV(b) are stated in the first paragraph above. The specific title of each position in each of the classification groups is contained in the enclosed schedules of wages.

The Navy Department has not found it necessary, except as stated above, to use wage board procedure in fixing salary rates for the various types of positions in Group IV(b).

These salary rates have been fixed by the Secretary of the Navy on a national basis, under the authority vested in him by statute, and are now fixed on that basis by statute, under "Classification Act of 1923", as amended. There has not appeared to be any justification for establishing a different level of pay for similar positions in this group in different localities.

It is noted that the pertinent statutes do not require that the salary rate of Group IV(b) employees must conform with those in private establishments in the vicinity of the respective navy yard, as is required by the act of July 16, 1862 in fixing the rate of wages of employees in Groups I, II, III, and IV(a).

The requirements of the act of July 16, 1862, have necessitated the decentralization of investigation of wage conditions in private establishments in the "immediate vicinity of the respective navy yards" and the determination of the rate of wages of Groups I, II, III and IV(a) employees by the commandants of specified navy yards and naval stations, subject to the revision and approval of the Secretary of the Navy. In contradistinction to Group IV(b) positions, the establishment, in normal times, of different levels of pay for similar positions in Groups I, II, III and in IV(a) in different localities, is justified.

V. "PUBLIC INTEREST" CLAUSE

The act of July 16, 1862, was enacted to prevent the Navy Department from fixing a rate of wages which would have a tendency to unstabilize wage conditions in the labor market areas in which navy yards are located. There were the interests of private employers and the public as well as the interests of the Government to be considered. The "public interest" clause in the Act was no doubt inserted to give discretionary power to the Secretary of the Navy in fixing the rate of wages in navy yards in order to protect such interests.

VI. ANNUAL AND SICK LEAVE

At the present time, there is no line of demarcation between employees in Group IV(b) and those in Groups I, II, III and IV(a) with respect to annual and sick leave privileges. The annual and sick leave acts of March 14, 1936 (49 Stat. 1161 and 49 Stat. 1162), as amended by the acts of March 2, 1940 (54 Stat. 38) and December 17, 1942 (56 Stat. 1052) apply alike to all employees at navy yards, naval stations and other naval shore establishments. These statutes grant twenty-six days annual leave with pay each calendar year and cumulative sick leave at the rate of one and one-quarter day per month. Prior to 1936, the leave privileges of such employees were governed by different statutes which granted different leave privileges. The act of February 1, 1901, (31 Stat. 746) granted all per diem employees, including those in Group IV(b), as well as those in Groups I, II, III and IV(a), fifteen days leave of absence with pay each calendar year. Prior to the enactment of this statute per diem employees at navy yards were not granted leave of absence with pay, in view of the provision in section 1545 of the Revised Statutes that all persons except those who are designated in the estimates "shall receive a per diem compensation for the time during which they may be actually employed."

In the absence of restrictive legislation in regard to per annum employees in Group IV(b), such employees were granted leave with pay under the same conditions as employees in the Navy Department at Washington, under section 7 of the act of March 15, 1898, which granted thirty days annual leave and an extension of thirty days in case of illness of an employee. The act of March 3, 1909 (35 Stat. 755) granted to per diem employees in Group IV(b) fifteen days leave of absence each calendar year and an extension thereof in each calendar year of fifteen days in case of illness of an employee. The act of August 29, 1916 (39 Stat. 617) granted to all employees at navy yards and naval stations and other naval shore establishments thirty days' leave of absence each year. Under a proviso in this act continuing sick leave privileges under existing law, Group IV(b) per diem employees continued to receive sick leave privileges under the act of March 3, 1909, and per annum Group IV(b) employees sick leave under the same conditions as employees in the Navy Department granted by the 1898 statute.

It will be noted that per diem employees in Groups I, II, III, and IV(a) were not entitled to sick leave privileges until the enactment of the act of March 14, 1936, and per annum employees in Group IV(b) were not entitled to sick leave by specific act of Congress until the enactment of such act.

VII. HOURS OF WORK AND OVERTIME PAY

Prior to the enactment of the act of June 28, 1940, (54 Stat. 678), Group IV(b) employees paid on a per annum basis were not paid at overtime rates of compensation, in the absence of statutory authority therefor, in view of decisions of the Comptroller of the Treasury and the Comptroller General that, in the absence of statutory authority, such employees are not entitled to additional compensation for overtime.

The act of June 28, 1940, in section 5(a), fixed regular working hours of the Navy Department, the Coast Guard and their field services at eight hours per day or forty hours per week during the national emergency, and provided that these hours might be exceeded at the discretion of the Secretary of the Navy. This same section also provided for payment of overtime compensation for employment in excess of forty hours per week to certain classes of per annum employees enumerated therein, on the basis of one and one-half times one three-hundred-and-sixtieth of their per annum rate. Under a directive issued by the Secretary of the Navy, Group IV(b) employees were entitled to overtime pay for such employment in excess of forty hours per week as was ordered and approved by proper authority.

The act of June 3, 1941 (55 Stat. 241) extended authority to pay overtime rates of compensation to certain other per annum employees. This authority to pay overtime expired by limitation on June 30, 1942, but was continued in effect to September 30, 1942, and then to November 30, 1942, by acts of Congress. The above laws were superseded by the act of December 22, 1942, (56 Stat.1068), effective December 1, 1942. This act, Executive Order 9289, and the departmental regulations, placed practically all per annum employees on a forty-eight hour work week, except those whose services could not be effectively utilized a full forty-eight hours, with overtime pay for employment in excess of forty hours. This statute expired on April 30, 1943, and was superseded by the act of May 7, 1943, (57 Stat. 75) which is primarily the same as the act of December 22, 1942.

Native employees (not citizens of the United States) and alien employees at shore establishments outside the continental limits of the United Sates performing service similar to that performed by employees in Group IV(b) are paid at the rate of time and one-half for work performed in excess of forty hours per week. Prior to January 1, 1931, when the pay of all Group IV(b) employees

within and without the continental limits of the United States, except those specifically appropriated for on an annual basis, were paid on a per diem basis, and were paid at straight rate or, at the rate time and one half for work performed in excess of their regular work day. The statutes fixing the hours of labor for "laborers, workmen, and mechanics" do not apply to Group IV(b) employees.

Prior to the enactment of the act of March 28, 1934, per diem employees in Groups I, II, III, and IV(a) were paid for work in excess of eight hours a day, at straight rate or at the rate of time and one half. The Secretary of the Navy, in circular letter of April 19, 1869, to commandants of navy yards, stated that until the act of Congress of June 25, 1868, (eight-hour law) and the act of Congress of July 16, 1862 (wage law) are repealed the Department "must abide by them" and that "the Department has no authority to extend the hours of labor by making more than eight hours a day's work, but it has the right to employ mechanics, workmen, and laborers extra hours and to pay them pro rata for such extra labor" and directed that "while, therefore, necessity exists for extra labor you are at liberty to exercise your discretion in the matter, so as to assist the working classes and at the same time do justice to the Government." On May 24, 1869, the Secretary of the Navy directed that the commandants govern themselves according to the proclamation of the President of May 19, 1869, that from and after that date no reduction should be made in the wages paid by the Government, by the day, to laborers, workmen, and mechanics on account of the reduction of the hours of labor by the act of June 25, 1868. On October 25, 1877, the Secretary of the Navy in establishing working hours in excess of eight directed "this regulation is not designed to carry with it any present reduction of pay." In General Order No. 227 of June 30, 1877, the Secretary of the Navy stated that under the construction of the eight hour law of June 25, 1868 (15 Stat. 77) by the Supreme Court of the United States (No. 401 -- October Term, 1876) "the Department has fixed the rate of labor for mechanics, foremen, leading-men, and laborers on the basis of ten hours a day" and that "all workmen electing to labor only eight hours per day will receive a proportionate reduction of their wages." On March 21, 1878, the Secretary of the Navy in establishing working hours in excess of eight directed that contracts for labor of mechanics, foremen, leading-men, and laborers will be on a basis of eight hours a day and that "all workmen electing to labor ten hours a day will receive a proportionate increase in their wages."

The "Navy Regulations 1896", Article 1574, provide that laborers, workmen and mechanics, whose compensation has been fixed upon a basis of eight hours per day, shall receive for work performed by reason of emergency, between the hours of 6:00 a.m. and 8:00 p.m. in excess of eight hours, the same rate of pay as for eight hours work; and that men who have rendered service during the day, and who by reason of emergency are required to work in excess of eight hours shall be paid for all such extra work performed after 8:00 p.m. and before 6:00 a.m. at the same rate per hour as for day work, with fifty per cent additional. The "Navy Regulations 1900", Article 1600, and "Navy Regulations 1905", Article 1600, provide that laborers, workmen, and mechanics, for work performed in excess of eight hours per day, "by reason of extraordinary emergency", shall be allowed the ordinary rate of pay, with fifty per cent additional. The "Naval Instructions 1913", Article 382, similarly provides. This basis for overtime was continued until the enactment by Congress of the act of March 28, 1934, which provides compensation for overtime in excess of forty hours per week "at the rate of not less than time and one half."

VIII. HOLIDAY AND SUNDAY PAY

Prior to the enactment by Congress of Public Resolution No. 127, on June 29, 1938, gratuity pay for legal holidays was, under the act of Congress of January 6, 1885 (23 Stat. 516), a vested right of per diem employees. Therefore, a per diem employee was paid gratuity pay for holidays whether or not he worked on the holidays, and if he worked on the holidays he was paid for the work performed in addition to gratuity pay. Under Public Resolution No. 127, gratuity pay is granted for a holiday only to those employees who are relieved or prevented from working solely because of the occurrence of the holiday. If a per diem employee works on a holiday he receives pay only for the work performed. Under the administrative regulations, for work performed on a holiday outside of the employees regular tour of duty he is paid at the rate of time and one half during the first eight hours and for work in excess of eight hours, by reason of an extraordinary emergency, fifty per cent additional to the holiday rate of pay, or one hundred and twenty-five per cent additional to the basic rate of pay is allowed. Per diem employees are not entitled to pay for Sundays, except for work performed on that day -- at straight pay, if within the employees regular tour of duty, and at the rate of time and one- half during the first eight hours, and for work in excess of eight hours, by reason of an extraordinary emergency, fifty per cent additional to the Sunday rate of pay, or one hundred and twenty-five per cent additional to the basic rate of pay. Per annum employees receive pay for every day in the year, consequently they are regarded as being available for work every day in the year, and are entitled to their regular pay for a holiday or a Sunday whether or not work is performed. Detailed regulations regarding overtime, a Sunday and holiday pay is contained in the schedules of wages, and Navy Civilian Personnel Instructions No. 85, "Hours of Work and Overtime", and No. 250, "Wage Administration".

IX. FACTORS EXCLUDED IN FIXING WAGES

Under the act of July 16, 1862, the Department cannot take such factors as annual and sick leave privileges, pay for overtime (either at a straight rate or time and one-half), and working on Sundays and holidays or payment of premiums or bonus into direct consideration in fixing the "rate of wages" of employees in Naval shore establishments. The payment of premiums or bonus to employees has been specifically prohibited by statute in the Naval Appropriation Acts, since the act of March 3, 1915, (38 Stat. 953) -- current provision in the "Naval Appropriation Act, 1945" (56 Stat. 322).

X. SPHERE OF APPLICATION OF "THOMAS AMENDMENT" (Act of March 28, 1934)

The provisions of section 23 of the act of March 28, 1934 were applied to all employees in Groups I, II, III, IV(a) and IV(b) at Naval shore establishments (including native (not American citizens) and alien employees outside the continental limits of the United States performing similar service), except those paid on a per annum or per month basis. This included all employees paid on a per hour or per diem basis, in Groups I, II, III, and IV(a) whose rate of wages was fixed through wage board procedure under authority of the act of July 16, 1862, and employees in Group IV(b) (native and alien employees (not American citizens) outside the continental limits of the United States) paid on a per diem basis whose salary rate was fixed under authority of the act of March 3, 1909.

The employees paid on a per annum or per month basis whose salary rates were fixed through wage board and administrative procedure and to whom the act was considered to be inapplicable are listed in the following table:

Within the continental limits of the United States

(Wage board procedure)

Maritime Service	All Group II, III and IV(a)
Clothing Workers Service	Group IV(a) (Per annum only)
Hospital Service	All Excepted Groups (now in "Commissary Service" and "Laundry Service," Groups II and III)
Naval Academy Service	Groups I, II, and III, IV(a), and Excepted (per annum only)
Naval Home Service	Groups I, II, III, and IV(a) and Excepted
Supervisory Mechanical Service	Group IV(a) (per annum and all IV(a) employees at Naval Hospitals)

Employees in Groups I, II, and III serving at Naval hospitals whose wages were fixed on a monthly basis by conversion of the hourly rates in the schedule of wages to the monthly rates.

Outside the continental limits of the United States
[Native (not American citizens) alien employees and Americans]

(Wage board procedure)

Laborer, Helper and Mechanical Service Supervisory Mechanical Service Hospital Service Hospital and Leper Colony Service Maritime Service	(Employees paid on a per (month or per annum basis.

(Administrative procedure)

Miscellaneous Stations Naval Attaches' Offices Marine Corps Posts	(Employees paid on a per (month or per annum basis.

A list of titles of all employees in the above groups are contained in the "Schedule of Wages for Civil Employees in the Field Service of the Navy Department and the Marine Corps", revised to July 23, 1931 (on pages 24 to 32, inclusive, and 42 to 57, inclusive). Classification groups and titles of positions of employees in similar categories are contained in later schedules of wages.

XI. CHANGES IN HOURS OF WORK AND OVERTIME PAY UNDER "THOMAS AMENDMENT"

At the time of the enactment of the act of Congress of March 28, 1934, the regular tours of duty of civil employees at Naval shore establishments were Monday to Saturday (half holiday), (six-day-forty-four-hour work week, forty-eight hours' pay;) and Tuesday to Saturday (half-holiday), (five-day-thirty-six-hour work week forty hours' pay). Every alternate Monday was a non-work day. To carry out the provisions of the statute, all naval shore establishments were closed on Saturday, and a five-day-forty-hour work week, Monday to Friday, was established. In order that the normal amount of work theretofore performed by Group IV(b) employees be accomplished, a work week of eight hours per day, Mondays to Thursdays and seven hours or eight hours a day on Friday was established (these hours were later changed to those established for employees in other groups). It was specifically directed in the order establishing these hours that "no exemption shall be made from this order (ALNAVSTA 0612-1700 April 1934) without approval of the Department obtained in advance, unless to meet an extraordinary emergency, except in the case of employees in various inspection offices, offices of superintending constructors and public works inspectors when it is necessary for them to work on Saturdays because contractors work on that day".

The employees included in the specific exceptions were Group IV(b) employees whose compensation was fixed by the Classification Act of 1923, as amended, and who therefore, did not come within the purview of section 23 of the act of March 28, 1934.

The extent to which the per annum and per month employees, listed above, performed work in excess of forty hours per week "to meet an extraordinary emergency", for which they did not receive additional compensation, is not on record in the Navy Department.

In view of the following construction of the term "extraordinary emergency" by the Attorney General, which was applied by the Navy Department to all civil employees in Naval shore establishments, employment in excess of forty hours per week was not extensive under these unusual conditions:

> The emergency provision in the law is considered to cover any extraordinary emergencies which cannot be foreseen, such as might be necessary for saving life or property of the United States, and not cases which depend for their emergency solely upon economical methods of work or importance of rapid construction. An "extraordinary emergency" under the act is one not to be foreseen in time to avoid the necessity of exceeding the limit of the fixed daily hours of labor by the employment of more men or more shifts of men. More economical considerations do not affect the question at all. It is to be assumed that in making the requirement Congress knew that under many conditions the law would impose great expense upon the Government.

Comparatively little work in excess of forty hours per week was performed by the month and per annum employees listed above, from March 28, 1934 to December 10, 1941 when, because of the national emergency, all civil employees were directed to work "not less than one full eight-hour day in excess of the basic five-day-forty-hour week." The largest group of employees of those listed above, who were required to work in excess of forty hours per week because of the unusual conditions of their employment, is the "Hospital Service". Employees in Groups I, II, III and IV(a) serving at Naval Hospitals, whose rates of wages on a per month basis were established by conversion of per hour rates in the schedule of wages were required to work extra hours to meet emergencies. Employees at Naval Hospitals in the "Hospital Service" and in Groups I, II, III, IV(a) have been paid overtime compensation from June 28, 1940, under the provisions of section 5(a) of the act of Congress of June 28, 1940, and the acts of June 3, 1941, December 22, 1942, and May 7, 1943.

The next largest group were employees in the "Maritime Service". Because of the nature of their employment it was necessary to work employees in this service over forty hours per week. These employees generally were paid overtime compensation under the acts of June 3, 1941, December 22, 1942, and May 7, 1943. Other per month and per annum employees listed above were likewise paid overtime compensation under these statutes.

Prior to March 28, 1934, the average hours worked in a two-week cycle was forty, for which employees were paid an average of forty-four hours pay. Therefore, the effect of the statute was to increase the average weekly compensation of such employees in a two-week period by four hours' pay for an average of forty hours' work, or, on a weekly basis, four hours' additional compensation for four hours' less work in one week and eight hours' additional compensation for four hours' additional work in the alternate week. The aggregate basic hours worked before and after March 28, 1934 are the same.

LIST OF REFERENCES RELATING TO WAGES AND CIVIL EMPLOYEES AT NAVY YARDS, NAVAL STATIONS AND OTHER SHORE ESTABLISHMENTS, 1863-1945.

SUBJECT	DATE	FILE NUMBER
Circular letter regarding hours of work and rates of wages of employees in Navy Yards.	Jun 10 1863	
Circular letter relative to appointment of Wage Boards at Navy Yards.	May 20 1864	
Letter from Commandant, Navy Yard, Boston, transmitting proposed Schedule of Wages for October and November, 1864, for approval of the Department.	Sep 29 1864	
Circular letter instructing Yards to submit proposed schedules to cognizant Bureaus.	Mar 29 1869	
Circular letter establishing hours of work in accordance with Eight-Hour Law of 1868.	Mar 29 1869	
Circular letter relative to work in excess of eight hours per day at Navy Yards.	Apr 19 1869	
Circular letter stating that no reduction in wages should be made because of reduction of hours of work.	May 24 1869	
Navy Department General Order No. 227.	Jun 30 1877	
Circular letter informing of change in hours of work without reduction in pay.	Oct 25 1877	
Circular No. 8 superseding letter of Oct. 25, 1877.	Mar 21 1878	
Circular letter stating that change in working hours would result in no reduction in pay.	Sep 21 1878	
U.S. Navy Regulations, Article 1675, on Wage Board procedure.	1893	
U.S. Navy Regulations, Article 1574 (2), on overtime and holiday pay.	1896	
U.S. Navy Regulations, Article 1670, on Wage Board procedure.	1896	
U.S. Navy Regulations, Article 1600, on overtime and holiday pay.	1900	
U.S. Navy Regulations, Article 1720, on Wage Board procedure.	1900	
U.S. Navy Regulations, Article 1600, on overtime and holiday pay.	1905	
U.S. Navy Regulations, Article 1720 on Wage Board procedure.	1905	
U.S. Navy Regulations, Article 1585, on Wage Board procedure.	1909	

SUBJECT	DATE	FILE NUMBER
U.S. Navy Regulations and Naval Instructions, Section 17, Article 371, Board on Wages and Rates of Pay.	1913	
U.S. Navy Regulations and Naval Instructions, Section 18, Articles 381 and 382, Overtime and Holiday Work and Pay.	1913	
Boards on Wages.	May 10 1921	Bg-Vr
Boards on Wages.	Sep 21 1922	SONYD-7-VR
Regulations for Boards on Wages.	Apr 14 1923	SONYD-7-VR
Boards on Wages.	Sep 18 1923	SONYD-7-Do
Regulations for Boards on Wages.	Jul 27 1926	SONYD-7-Jn
Regulations for Boards on Wages.	Jun 15 1929	SONYD-7-Gn
ALNAVSTA in regard to hours of work.	Apr 12 1934	SONYD-4-Md
Regulations governing the determination of wages of civilian employees in Groups I, II, III and IV(a).	Jan 8 1940	SOSED-4-Ch
Navy Civilian Personnel Instruction 85, Hours of Work and Overtime.	Mar 17 1945	SECP:400:Si SECP:510:Si
Navy Civilian Personnel Instruction 250, Wage Administration.	Apr 13 1945	SECP:400:Si
Schedule of wages for civil employees under the Naval Establishment.	1929	
Schedule of wages for civil employees in the field service of the Navy Department and the Marine Corps.	1931	
Schedule of wages for civil employees in the field service of the Navy Department and the Marine Corps.	1936	
Schedule of wages for civil employees in the field service of the Navy Department and the Marine Corps.	1940	
Schedule of wages for civil employees in the field service of the Navy Department, the Marine Corps and the Coast Guard within the continental limits of the United States.	1943	
Schedule of wages for civil employees in the field service of the Navy Department, Marine Corps, Coast Guard within the continental limits of the United States.	1944	

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